University of Bristol

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TEACHER'S GUIDES: A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF THREE TEXTS

by
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Abstract

The spread of English language teaching has been widely researched, as have the pedagogic methods and materials, exported from the UK, for use in schools overseas. The Teacher's Guides which accompany the Student's materials, have, however, not come under such similar close scrutiny in the literature. This study focuses on the neglected area of the Teacher's Guides with the objective of exploring what they say to teachers and how they say it. For the analysis, three Teacher's Guides were selected which accompany UK published Student's Books for teenage learners of English. After outlining some of the key features of English Language teaching principles and practice, the research analyses the Guides. The investigation uses a three-stage framework of Critical Discourse analysis which draws on Fairclough's model of Critical Discourse Analysis. This is designed to reveal patterns of discourse in the texts at the same time as posing questions about the contexts of the texts' production and consumption. The study then explores the presuppositions in the texts and how the discourse positions the reader. The analysis concludes with the third stage of Fairclough's model by explaining the data in the wider context of English Language Teaching discourse. The conclusions show that the reader of the Guides is placed in a variety of reading positions which may estrange her from the text and also place the teacher, in submissive pedagogic roles. The study concludes by suggesting further lines of research into Teacher's Guides.

Dedication

For Samia and Tara

Acknowledgements

Very special thanks to Dr Andrew Littlejohn
for all kinds of support for many years.

My warm gratitude also to Dr Susan Robertson for her gentle insistence that I get back on the horse.

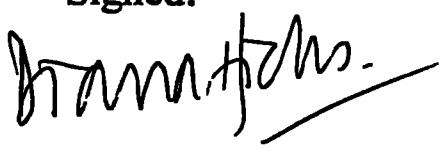
Declaration

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Bristol. The work is original except where indicated by special reference in the text and no part of this dissertation has been submitted for any other degree.

Any views expressed in this dissertation are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University of Bristol.

The dissertation has not been presented to any other University for examination in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Signed:



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CHAPTER ONE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER'S GUIDES: LOCATING THE TEXT

1.1 Introduction

Put briefly, my aim in carrying out this study is to explore the discursive practices of three Teacher's Guides that accompany the English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks used by overseas students who are studying English in school. The two questions this study attempts to address are, firstly, what do the three selected ELT Teacher's Guides say to teachers? Secondly, how do they say it? This search for answers will involve an examination of some of the key elements of ELT and how they are disseminated through the community through a linguistic analysis of three selected Teacher's Guide texts.

The study is important for both the reason of its topic and of its research method. Much recent research in the field of English Language Teaching has focussed on the efficiency of new methods and techniques. However, the topic of Teacher's Guides in English Language Teaching is acknowledged by researchers as being neglected in the literature (Cunningsworth and Kusel, 1991: Coleman, 1985). This study is an attempt to fill an

important gap in understanding more about the structure of Teacher's Guides and how they speak to their readers. Secondly, although discourse analysis has an increasingly significant role to play in clarifying how we understand and construct the world, a consensually agreed model of discourse analysis does not yet exist (Fowler: 1996 p7). There is a variety of approaches to discourse analysis; some approaches focus upon a close analysis of the linguistic forms of the text (Gumperz and Hymes:1972). However, in more recent times, there has been greater interest in developing models of discourse analysis that seek to locate those texts within a wider social, economic and political context. In particular, these approaches to discourse seek to explain how discourse systematically constructs versions of the social and natural worlds and positions subjects in relations of power and there is now a large body of work which demonstrates how power relations are expressed in language (Luke: 1995 p. 8, Kress: quoted in Caldas-Coulthard and Coulthard: 1996 p. 6).

In this study, I sought a research method that would assist in analysing the discourse of the Teacher's Guides critically, through linguistic and contextual clues, at the same time as placing the Guides within the socio-cultural context of their production. This is because, as I will argue, that Teacher's Guides, as pedagogic tools, their form and content, cannot be understood without locating them in the wider context of the spread of English language and its teaching, and the considerable profits to be made through marketing the Student's Books which accompany the Teacher's Guides.

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1.2 What is English Language Teaching?

English Language teaching means the teaching of English to any student, regardless of age or proficiency, whose first language is not English. This teaching occurs in classes either in the UK or overseas where the teacher is a native speaker (NS) or non-native speaker (NNS). The increasingly widespread nature of English Language Teaching is a well-recognised and well-documented phenomenon (Phillipson, 1992: Pennycook, 1994), as is the increasingly widespread adoption overseas of ELT textbooks produced by leading UK educational publishers such as Addison Wesley [Longman], Oxford University Press, Heinemann Macmillan and Cambridge University Press. The markets for one recently produced ELT textbook from Cambridge University Press which is designed for use in overseas secondary schools, cover 65 countries ranging from Albania to Yugoslavia. (The full range of countries is shown in Appendix 1). The statistics from the current DfEE website show that ELT earned the UK £700 m in 1999 with a further £1000m brought in for UK publishers who sold ELT materials overseas.

Textbooks earn considerable profits for publishers. Even if a new set of main course materials is only modestly successful (in commercial terms), the Student's book will almost certainly achieve sales exceeding 100,000 copies a year and may go on to reach final sales well in excess of a million over an eight-ten year shelf-life. These figures easily outstrip some of the more publicly proclaimed best sellers in paperback fiction (C.U.P marketing data).

Modern, globally marketed ELT course books are now complex, inter-linking packages of material comprising a student textbook with one or two class audio cassettes or CDs,

a student workbook and a Teacher's Guide. Many of the following components are also increasingly available with the basic package; simplified or graded readers, posters and games packages, video with workbook, test booklets and a dedicated web-site for additional materials. Further, it is now also increasingly the trend to construct localised versions from the original 'international' series with additional tasks, texts, Teacher's notes, tests, 'Companion' workbooks and wordlists being provided by local experts in order to maximise sales in otherwise inaccessible markets. There may be as many as seven or eight such local versions that draw on the original source material and which are produced for countries such as Poland, Greece, Turkey, Spain, Italy, China and the Middle East. Thus, although many schools continue to use a Student textbook and accompanying Teacher's Guide, the range of additional materials produced by publishers at carefully staged periods which are designed to support the basic materials has shifted the perception of the textbook as a 'stand alone' pedagogic item to becoming the starting point of an expanding package. These 'add-ons' serve a variety of purposes: they are used to justify further re-launches of the original course book, to be given away as free offers to encourage decision makers to adopt the course book and create a materially aspirational climate in pedagogic communities.

ELT materials production is therefore big business and is increasingly modelled on the marketing ambitions and practices of multinationals to take advantage of the fortunate demographic pattern of many large markets such as Brazil where the increased provision of state education, combined with the large numbers of people under the age of 25, present them with a ready- made market. This mercantile expansionism is

supported by the activities of the British Council, British Universities and private language schools who all profit from the widely-held belief that non-native speakers are better off if they know English than if they do not. This policy is best summed up by the British Council:

> There is a hidden sales element in every English teacher, book, magazine, film strip and television programme sent overseas. (British Council Annual Report, 1968-9 pp10-11 quoted in Pennycook, 1994, p145)

This salesmanship is successful as a result of two popularly held and powerful views. The first is that English is a neutral and beneficial commodity which benefits those who buy language materials and courses to a greater extent than those who sell them. The second is that the spread of English is a positive force that promotes world peace and international understanding (Pennycook, 1994 p13). This expanding market needs to be constantly supplied with increasingly sophisticated packages of material. In relation to the purposes of this study, that is an analysis of what the Teacher's guides say and how they say it, it is necessary to look at what the customers are provided with and how the whole package is constructed.

Although these views combine to position ELT as a successful, philanthropic business, it also needs to be seen as a principled profession with a readily identified group of professional educators who are involved in ELT whose theories and practices are underpinned by training and further studies in Higher Education institutions. In the introduction to his handbook on tasks for language teachers, Parrott points out that:

> Any materials which are designed for teaching language embody assumptions about the nature of language and the objectives of learning a language, and what teaching a language involves. (Parrott, 1993, p 1)

Consensuality about these assumptions means that they have been accepted as norms or principles within the practice of ELT and although it is important to establish what these are, it is equally important to question why there is such consensus and where it comes from. Consensuality is important in the rapidly emerging status of ELT. This is because it brings with it the framework for a professional identity which, like any profession, needs to be seen to be unequivocally rooted in theory and practices which can shape the identity of the ELT teaching community. It is important, also that:

> ... the methods and procedures employed by members of a profession are based on a body of theoretical knowledge and research.(Carr and Kemmis, 1983 in Richards, 1990 p 3)

This 'body of theoretical knowledge' in ELT has been augmented and modified in the last 25 years but the rapidity of that modification has increased in more recent times.. Harmer (1991), in the preface to the second edition of his influential methodology handbook, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, points out that between the publication of the first edition in 1983 and that of the second edition in 1991 'much has happened in the world of language teaching'. According to Harmer (ibid: preface p.1), this 'flux and change' of 'methods and procedures', between 1983 and 1991, included 'task-based learning, self-directed learning, learner training and discovery techniques', in addition to a 'renaissance of interest in vocabulary and vocabulary teaching'.

This seems to suggest that there is a developing body of theory and practice to which the community of ELT practitioners can refer but which will also require new products to service. These professional developments in ELT draw not only on applied linguistic and pedagogic theories but also on modern marketing and entrepreneurial practices

because innovation in pedagogic approaches creates a need for innovative pedagogic materials. This raises questions about how ELT teachers become familiar with an expanding array of Students' texts and Teacher's Guides and the theories and principles that underpin them. These questions will be addressed in the next section.

1.3 The Links between the Theory and Practice of ELT

The need to explore the links between the theory and practice of ELT is significant for an analysis of Teacher's Guides. This is because the Teacher's Guide, as a tool provided to support the teacher by clarifying methodological issues and introducing her to new pedagogic approaches, could be seen as being positioned at the interface between the two sides of the profession – the theory of the researcher/trainer and the practice of the classroom practitioner.

> All professional fields have their own 'register' of language, whose useage marks the members of the community. (Halliday, 1985).

There is disagreement about the extent to which the practice of ELT and theories about language learning and teaching can draw or have drawn upon the research findings from fields such as sociology, sociolinguistics, psychology through pyscholinguistics, educational theory, politics and second language acquisition (SLA) research. Chomsky points out:

> I am, frankly, rather sceptical about the significance, for the teaching of languages, of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics and psychology... it is difficult to believe that either linguistics or psychology has achieved a level of theoretical understanding that might enable it to support a 'technology' of language teaching. (Chomsky quoted in Yalden,1987 p. 29)

However, Chomsky's position has continued to be challenged by others, including Ellis, who work in the field of SLA;

> ... one of the great advantages of linguistics was that it provided teachers, course writers and other ELT professionals with a body of knowledge which could be used, manipulated, converted... into teaching materials and also into syllabuses.(Ellis, 1993 p.48)

It could be inferred from Ellis' statement that it was fortuitous that research into linguistics produced such a useful, marketing outcome. It could also be inferred that the research was designed and funded with these instrumental outcomes in mind. Nevertheless, this body of knowledge and the teaching materials which resulted from it have produced a meta-language which is used in the field of ELT theory and practice and which make references to a shared set of principles. Three of the key pedagogic areas and some of the research which lay behind them and the pedagogic practices which followed on from them are outlined below. This outline serves to contextualise the sections in the Teacher's Guides which are selected to provide data for this study and at the same time to introduce some of the terms in the register of ELT discursive practice.

The key pedagogic areas of ELT create, as in any specialised field of activity, their own 'register' of terms (Halliday, 1985) behind which lie theoretical, and sometimes historical, concepts which are translated into practice. From journal articles, conference papers and teacher's handbooks, this theory and practice and the discourse used to talk about them is referred to, directly or indirectly, in the Teacher's Guide.

Many applied linguists and textbook writers would argue that the main feature of ELT theory and practice is grammar (Brumfit, 1981: Harmer, 1991; Cunningsworth, 1995; Rampton, 1995; Fortune, 1998;). Cunningsworth, in his evaluation of Student's course

books, sums up how centrally positioned grammar is in both the theory and practice of language learning and teaching:

> Grammar is a major component of any general language course...
> It is the effective teaching of grammar that distinguishes a true language course from a phrase book and it is an understanding of, and an ability to use grammar that equips learners with the ability to create their own utterances and use language for their own purposes (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.32)

Cunningsworth was not expressing a new opinion. Fourteen years earlier Brumfit had made a similar point:

> The syllabus will be specified grammatically, because syntax is the only generative system so far described for language, and – since time is at a premium - a generative system will be more economical as a way of organising language work for student learning than a non-generative taxonomy of items (Brumfit (1981) in Johnson and Morrow, p.50)

Other applied linguists have, more recently, substantiated this opinion. For example, Michael Swan in an IATEFL plenary (Keele, 1996), argued strongly for the strategic role of grammar in the discipline. Fortune (1998) agrees with Howatt (1997) that grammar is 'making a comeback' although Thornbury (1997/8, p19) argues convincingly that grammar has 'never been anywhere but centre stage'. As Harmer posits very firmly:

> Since a knowledge of grammar is essential for our competent users of a language it is clearly necessary for our students. Obviously, for example, they need to know that verbs in the third person singular have an 's' ending...(Harmer, 1991, p 23)

The consensus is supported by SLA research: Rampton notes that:

> ...the governing interest in SLA (second language acquisition) research is...grammatical development. There is a certain amount of psychometric concern...but these are generally only seen as antecedent constraints on the central processes of grammar acquisition.' (Rampton, 1995, p235)

It would seem that grammar has maintained this central position irrespective, or perhaps because of, SLA research and creates the widely held tenet that the *sine qua non* of language competence is not just the knowledge of grammar but, more importantly, its accurate use. Thornbury observes:

> **Grammar is the engine that drives classroom practice. It is in grammatical terms that pedagogical aims are articulated: it is for linguistic purposes that texts are chosen and exploited; it is the reproduction of specific forms that motivates classroom interactions; it is their lack of accuracy that prompts teacher feedback: and it is the mastery of form that is still largely the standard by which learning is evalauated. (Thornbury 1997/8 p.19)**

Accuracy and mastery of form can be tested more efficiently than fluency and lends itself well to the traditional 'before and after' quantitative research model which meets the customers, teachers and managers' need to be able to obtain results easily with which to defend the effectiveness of the pedagogic methods and procedures used.

ELT tests and examinations are a large part of the expanding business: the examinations department of Cambridge University Press has recently launched examinations for very young learners at one end and businessmen at the other. Pennycook (1994, p.156) reports that the USA generated, accuracy based TOEFL examination attracted almost half a million candidates in 1987 which generated an income of £9.5 million. (While this data is somewhat dated, it can be assumed that, given the expansion in English Language courses, both the number of students and the amount of income generated have been significantly increased). This, combined with the £6 million which was generated by UK examination boards in the same year, indicates the importance of being able to produce and sell tests which test language competence objectively. The accuracy and certainty of grammar conveniently lend themselves well to being tested objectively.

Not only is there a wide consensus that grammar is the basis of language learning, teaching and testing but also, as Harmer points out:

> Luckily there is a consensus about what grammar should be taught at what level. . While there may be variations in the actual order of grammatical items taught (teachers tend to teach past tenses – especially 'was' and 'were' – earlier than they used to, for example) a glance through the majority of currently available teaching materials will show how strong the consensus is. (Harmer, 1991, p 23)

This 'luck' is due, in part, to the sustained influence of the morpheme studies (Dulay and Burt, 1973) which seemed to establish that children learning a foreign language, like children learning their mother tongue, appeared to follow a pre- determined order of structures which did not necessarily reflect the frequency of use which they were exposed to. This pre-determined order of structures could then be reified into a 'universal' syllabus that could then be universally tested using products from UK and USA publishing companies.

Because grammar is considered to be essential for an understanding of the language (Widdowson, 1990, Wilkins, 1976, Swain, 1985, Ur, 1988,) any debates about the position of grammar in language learning generally concern the different pedagogic methods and techniques which can lead to its mastery as efficiently as possible. These debates result in a variety of new techniques and materials about which Harmer offers a word of caution:

> ... we need to evaluate each fashion-shift in approaches to grammar with just a hint of amused scepticism. Grammar will never go away even if the methods we use to teach it go through all sorts of changes. (Harmer, 1998, p39)

Therefore, the position of grammar within the pedagogy of ELT is unrivalled and until recently, vocabulary has played a much less significant role than grammar in the teaching and learning of English.

> It is curious to reflect that so little importance has been given to vocabulary in modern language teaching. Both the behavourist/structural model and the functional/communicative model have, in their different ways, consistently underplayed it. (Maley, 1981 in foreword to Morgan and Rinvoluccri)

Nunan considers that part of the problem '...lies in the fact that whilst there is a consensus about what grammatical structures should be taught at what levels the same is hardly true of vocabulary'. (1991, p.154) One of the reasons for this lack of consensus was the shortage of SLA research into what vocabulary learning and teaching could consist of and how it could be taught. One of the most recent publications on SLA research and language teaching (Ellis, 1991) has no chapter devoted to vocabulary acquisition nor a reference in the index to research into lexical acquisition. This lack of research and consequent theoretical background for vocabulary teaching led to a pragmatic and functional view of how and what should be taught even though the selection of items, as Cunningsworth (1995) argues, is ' a tricky subject'. However, in the place of research findings, the notions of 'frequency ' and 'usefulness' guided the selection of vocabulary which was presented in textbooks, as the authors of the textbook series *Headway* point out:

> Here is a list of words that appear... in *Headway*. Most of the new words are here, but if a word isn't very useful or very common, it isn't in these lists.
> (Soars and Soars: 1991 *Headway Pre Intermediate*, p.132)

The recent research into vocabulary and use has taken the form of large scale corpora studies which have been partially funded by UK publishers such as Collins and Cambridge University Press. These studies into the frequency, and by extension, usefulness, of certain lexical items, have, according to McCarthy and Carter (1995) reflected the intuitions of native-speaker language teachers about which words should be in a language course at a particular level (see also Widdowson, 1993; Harmer, 1983).

Such intuitions can be checked by referring to one of the large numbers of dictionaries which publishers have produced since the corpora studies began. Four of the main UK publishers (Longman, Collins, Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press) have produced no less than 45 dictionaries between them in the last seven years, all of which are targetted at different segments of the ELT market (data from 1998 *Keltic catalogue*, pp 47-51) and which are based on different corpora. The Collins family of dictionaries draw on The Bank of English, Longman and Oxford dictionaries draw on the British National Corpus and the Cambridge family of dictionaries use the Cambridge Language Survey (Walters: 1996 p.356).

In what appears to be sharp contrast to the accuracy- based knowledge of grammar, the communicative approach to ELT has emphasised meaningful interaction as the most valued pedagogic activity. This requires learners to

> ... prepare to use the target language... in many predictable and unpredictable acts of communication which will arise both in classroom interaction and in real-world situations...(Yalden, 1987 p .56)

This set of practices draws on the SLA theory and research which argues that the classroom should provide an environment which is 'linguistically rich' and offers opportunities for the learner to use the language creatively instead of focussing on form (Krashen, 1981). In this approach, language is seen as a social practice that aims to construct '. ..communicative interaction involving all the participants in learning....a process which grows out of the interaction between learners, teachers, texts and activities.' (Breen and Candlin, 1982, p95)

Such was the influence of the 'communicative approach' on ELT theory and practice that it would be difficult to find an ELT textbook now which did not claim to teach 'communicatively'. However, an approach in which the students are '... challenged cognitively... involved in the learning process... asked to contribute their own opinions, experiences and feelings... take part in realistic activities... encouraged to work closely with peers... encouraged to assume a certain responsibility for their own learning and to develop learning skills... (Soars and Soars 1987, p ii) has given rise to 'widespread consternation' about how to adapt this 'new methodology' to the reality of the state school classroom overseas. In these settings many teachers are likely to be '...unsure about the appropriateness of the communicative approach given the conditions prevalent in their classrooms' (Holliday, 1994, p 3).

These concerns are central to the issues involved in the production and distribution of materials and methods from one socio-cultural context (in this case, the West), to many of the sixty-five other countries to which these materials are marketed. They neither share the same context, nor may they share the belief that, even if the subject matter – the language- is neutral and beneficial, then the products which are used to teach it are equally value free. These issues, and the extent to which they are reflected by the content and discourse of the Teacher's Guides, are examined more closely in Chapters 5 and 6. However, their introduction here serves to bring into focus the key relationship between the production of materials and their consumption in different contexts by different social actors.

Once the publishers realised that teachers who taught in large classes with few resources would find it difficult to implement many of the pedagogic principles of communicative teaching, another means had to be found to encourage 'meaningful interaction' in the classroom. The solution was the introduction of project work, which is 'one way of ensuring genuinely communicative uses of spoken and written English' (Harmer, 1991, p 154). After grammar and vocabulary, project work is the third pedagogic area which receives considerable attention in the three Teacher's Guides in the study. Its importance to ELT classroom practice needs to be considered within the context of the communicative approach. Project work is a relatively recent addition to the ELT teacher's skills repertoire (Harmer, for example, makes no mention of it in the 1983 edition of *The Practice of English Language Teaching* but has a section on it in the second edition in 1991). This raises the questions of how new pedagogic techniques are disseminated to teachers around the world. Some answers are suggested in the next section.

1.4 The Dissemination of the Principles and Practice of ELT

Dissemination of innovations in the principles and practice of ELT is broadcast to the marketplace through a range of conduits largely controlled by Britain, Australia and North America – the BANA countries. (Holliday, 1994 p.12). Teacher training is carried out by a number of private and public organisations such as the British Council, The Centre for British Teachers, International House, The Bell School and Pilgrims in UK and overseas for native speaker and non- native speaker teachers. Teacher qualifications are offered by Institutions such as UCLES, RSA and Trinity College which all have an expanding number of overseas centres where teachers can sit examinations. Many UK

universities offer a range of Masters courses in Applied Linguistics as well as ELT teaching as distance learning packages. Language curriculum reform in many countries is often carried out with the expertise of BANA- based consultants who produce policy documents which reflect BANA attitudes to language and language learning. Although there are few 'refereed' publications in the mainstream field of ELT, journals such as *TESOL Quarterly, The Journal of Applied Linguistics* and *The English Language Teaching Journal* are influential, readily available and contributed to mainly by BANA-based practitioners. For example, *The Teacher Trainer, Spring 1999* has nine articles, only one of which was written by a teacher from a non -BANA country . Further, the four issues in volume 54 (year 2000) of *The English Language Teaching Journal* contain in total thirty-four articles (excluding Surveys and reviews). Five articles are co-authorships between a native speaker and one or more non- native speakers, seven articles are written by non-native speakers (most of whom have post-graduate qualifications gained from a BANA University) and the remainder (twenty-two) are written by native speakers from BANA countries.

Further, all the main UK publishers produce at least one series of 'methodology' handbooks for teachers which range from the highly academic to the simply practical such as Harmer (1983, 1991,) and Ur (1996) and arrange professional and commercial workshops to which all teachers are invited. These occur all year round in particular targetted markets and some key BANA authors may run workshops in up to fifteen countries in one year (data from Author Travel department, Cambridge University Press). Further, the two main ELT organisations - TESOL (USA based) and IATEFL

(UK based) - hold large international conferences once a year attracting upwards of 10,000 participants. In addition, many countries run their own TESOL or IATEFL conferences annually at which one or more of the plenary speakers is drawn from the BANA context. Although it is true that not all teachers in all countries will have access to workshops, journals and conferences, many ministries of Education have established a cascade training system in which senior teachers take responsibility for passing on new ideas to teachers in more remote regions.

1.5 Problematising ELT Teacher's Guides

A Teacher's Guide is provided to support the teacher in her use of an increasingly diverse package of materials. The complexity of the materials requires careful consideration of the content, structure and sequence of the Teacher's Guide in order to establish first, the information it gives to the teacher about the nature of language, the practice of language teaching and the processes of language learning and second, the discourse strategies it uses to do this. The ways in which the Teacher's Guides offer guidance and implicitly or explicitly give messages to the teacher reflect a particular stance on language, learning and classroom management (Nunan, 1991 p. 226). This study aims to explore which discursive practices the texts draw upon to describe and discuss these stances and how the teacher is positioned by the texts to understand the messages and act on them in her teaching.

Although there is a considerable, and growing, literature on a range of teachers' classroom practice (Nunan, 1991), and textbook use (Littlejohn, 1998), the literature on Teacher's Guides in general is very sparse and, to my knowledge, a research literature

on Teacher's Guides for secondary school textbooks in particular is non-existent. It follows from this that the contribution Teacher's Guides play in reflecting the key pedagogic practices of ELT and the discourse used to do this has not been problematised either (Cunningsworth and Kusel, 1991). It is as though both the product itself and the messages they contain are invisible. Such invisibility allows little opportunity for teachers or reviewers to gain experience in undertaking a personal interpretation of a Teacher's Guide because the visibility of a course book (the 'heart of the materials') is the Student's book (Sheldon, 1988).

Reviews of new student textbooks are to be found in every issue of the main ELT journals. However, little mention is made of the Teacher's Guide (see, for example, Campbell et al, 1998). Cunningsworth and Kusel point out that this lack of comment is not acceptable

> ... where courses are being evaluated in which TGs occupy a central position and may well be of greater importance than the student's book. This is typically the case where ... teachers ...are heavily dependent on the TG for methodological guidance, for linguistic information, or for insights into cultural issues.

As the Teacher's Guide is under-reviewed, it remains under-exposed and under-analysed. One of the reasons why the Guide has remained 'invisible' is the low esteem in which it is currently held by the all the key players in the field. The student textbook writers, after having focussed their energies and attention on the production of the student materials, may have little time or interest left for the Teacher's Guides, as Cunningsworth and Kusel point out:

> ... it is not unusual for TGs to be written in some haste, as a postscript to the class materials, perhaps under pressure from publishers who want to get the material to the market (Cunningsworth and Kusel, 1991 p.45)

An argument which is supported by Coleman:

> ...there is little evidence that materials writers, when given an opportunity to describe their materials, pay much attention to TGs (Coleman, 1985 p 85)

It is also the case that some Teacher's Guides are co-authored by an author who did not write the accompanying Student's book: for example, the author of *Open Doors* Student's Book (1994) is Whitney, but the Teacher's Guide is written by Ward and Whitney. It is also, not infrequently the case, that a ghost writer writes the Teacher's Guide, for a fee, but the book cover itself carries the name of the Student's Book author. Publishers also contribute to this lack of esteem by building into the costs of production of the overall course the expense of giving away large numbers of the Teacher's Guide to teachers and institutions as a course is adopted. Table 1.1 below gives an example of sales of Teacher's Guides compared with frees which shows quite clearly that teachers in many countries expect a 'free product'. It may be that the value accorded to the product may correlate highly with the amount paid for it. Tomlinson et al make the point:

> ... teacher's books are unattractive in appearance and poorly designed – the almost inevitable consequence of being a financially unprofitable component of a global course. (Tomlinson et al ELTJ vol 55/1 2001 p 91)

Table 1.1

Sales and frees over a two year period of a Level 1 ELT Course book and accompanying Teacher's Book (data provided by Cambridge University Press)

Student book sales	**Student book 'frees'**	**Proportion**
114,635	16,039	8:1
Teacher's Guide sales	**Teacher Guide 'frees'**	**Proportion**
5678	3847	1.5 :1

Third, reviewers rarely review Teacher's Guides. Often they are not mentioned at all or, if they are, the comments are brief and superficial. A recent review (Campbell et all, 1998) of textbooks for secondary schools, which includes a review of two of the three Teacher's Guides included in this dissertation, is representative of professional journal reviews. The review of *Hotline*, (Hutchinson, 1991) for example, has roughly one thousand words. In addition to an eight line quotation from the Teacher's Guide, the review uses only sixty-two out of the total thousand words to review the Teacher's Guide which is a description which could apply to most Teacher's Guides. The complete section follows:

> The teacher's books contain all the necessary material to back up the material in the student's books, including answer keys, tapescripts and explanations of language and cultural points that arise in each unit. At the same time, they suggest the best way of handling each activity. I particularly liked the interleaved teacher's books ...
>
> (Campbell et al, 1998)

Similarly, the review of *Open Doors* (Whitney, 1994), although slightly shorter with roughly 650 words, has the following single sentence to describe the accompanying Teacher's Guide.

> The teacher's books offer useful descriptions of lessons, as well as materials for pair work, projects, and tests, which can be used in different learning situations.
>
> (Campbell et al, 1998)

The lack of critical analysis in the reviews suggests that, relative to the Student's book, the Teacher's Guide is of marginal importance. The marketing of Teacher's Guide is of low priority. The publisher's representative knows that once a school adopts a Student's Book, the Teacher's Guide will be given away or sold automatically on a ratio of 20 Student's Books to one Teacher's Book in the first year with few repeat orders in subsequent years.

The organisational routines of the global patterns of consumption and distribution of secondary school Teacher's Guides are important to introduce at this stage as a way of reinforcing the notion that ELT materials are products marketed by large business enterprises and this element needs to be built into the model used to analyse the discourse of the Teacher's Guides.

1.6 Selection of the Guides for Study

Three Teacher's Guides which accompany three ELT secondary school Student's books have been chosen as the basis of the study. All the Student's books are aimed at the same market, that is, non-native speaker secondary school students who are learning English as a time- tabled school subject. Table 1.2 gives details of the three selected Guides.

Table 1.2 The three texts chosen for the study

Title	Author	Date of publication	Publisher	Description of course as on blurb
Hotline	***Hutchinson, T.***	***1991***	***Oxford University press***	***Hotline is a four year course for teenagers***
World Class	***Harris, M. and Mower, D.***	***1994***	***Longman [Addison Wesley]***	***World Class is aimed at students in the 11-16 range***
Open Doors	***Ward, A. and Whitney, N.***	***1995***	***Oxford University Press***	***Open Doors is a communicative course for young teenagers***

This is a very competitive market and the *Keltic Catalogue* (1999) lists no less than thirty-one 'Secondary Courses' (pages 7 -11) which are all targetted at the same age range. While it would have been both interesting and analytically useful to have undertaken a study of all thirty-one Teacher's Guides, such a study would have been broad in scope but would have precluded a close reading of the texts. Given the close analysis which I argue is needed for a robust and critical analysis of discourse, I have chosen to concentrate on three Teacher's Guides. As one of the purposes of the study was to establish how the discourse of the Teacher's Guides reflected the current key principles of ELT, it was important to select those Guides which accompanied the Student's Books which had been best sellers in a range of markets on the assumption that the texts of best selling courses both reflect and mould the discourse of the community more than other, less well-used materials. This decision excluded those textbooks which had been published very recently because at least three years are needed to ascertain whether a course is a best seller. It also excluded those which were published in the early to mid eighties when BANA produced ELT course books had little commercial impact in the USSR and its satellites – markets which are of significance today.

The objective means of judging which texts to select was to use the *Keltic Catalogue* which indicates which are the best sellers (see Note 1). Significantly, the table also indicates that twenty out of the thirty one courses (two thirds) are published by only two UK publishers: ten by OUP and ten by Addison Wesley/Longman. It is clear that these two publishers have the key control over the consumption and distribution of materials

in this market and so it was important that the texts included in the study came from these two stables. Table 1.3 provides details, from information in the *Keltic* catalogue, of the remaining twenty-eight courses and the reasons why they were not selected for analysis.

Table 1.3 Details of the non-selected courses

Title	*Author*	*Publisher*	*Reasons for selection/non selection.*
Apple Pie	Littlewood, B. et al	Macmillan Heinemann	Published too late for inclusion.
Brainwaves	Wakeman, K. and Klozanoglou, D.	O.U.P.	Published too late for inclusion.
Cambridge English for Schools	Littlejohn, A.P., and Hicks, D.	C.U.P	Written by author of dissertation.
Discoveries	Abbs, B. and Freebairn, I.	Addison Wesley/Longman	Published more than ten years ago.
English Jackpot!	Vince, M.	Macmillan/ Heinemann	Not a best seller.
Excursions	Cumino, M.	O.U.P.	Not a best seller.
Fastlane	Wilson, K.	Prentice Hall	Not a best seller.
Fountain	Lawley, J. et al	Addison Wesley/Longman	Published too late for inclusion.
Generation 2000	Grainger,C. et al	Macmillan/ Heinemann	Revised from a 1980's course.
Go for English!	Elsworth, S. and Rose, J.	Addison Wesley/Longman	Published too late for inclusion.
Go!	Elsworth, S. and Rose, J.	Addison Wesley/Longman	This was a serious contender for inclusion but rejected when four texts became unmanageable.
High Flyer	Acevado, A., and Gower, M.	Addison Wesley/Longman	Not a best seller
Network	Bowler,B., and Parminter,S.	OUP	Published too late for inclusion
New Adventures	Llanas, A., and Williams, L.	Macmilllan/ Heinemann	Sold mostly in South America
New Discoveries	Abbs, B., and Freebairn, I.	Addison Wesley/Longman	Published more than ten years ago
New Hotline	Hutchinson, T.	OUP	Published too late for inclusion
New Streetwise	Nolasco, R.	OUP	Published too late for inclusion
Over to You	Authors not named	Addison Wesley/Longman	Authors not named
Project English	Hutchinson, T.	OUP	Published more than ten years ago

Prospects	Wilson, K., and Taylor, J.	Macmillan/ Heinemann	Published too late for inclusion
Shine	Garton-Sprenger, J., and Prowse, P.	Macmillan/ Heinemann	I am a friend of one of the authors
Snapshot	Abbs, B., et al	Addison Wesley/Longman	Published too late for inclusion
Teamwork	Spencer, D., et al	Macmillan/ Heinemann	Not a best seller
Winner	Amos, E.	Addison Wesley/Longman	American English
WOW	Nolasco, R.	OUP	Almost included but rejected because of overload
Your choice	Downie, M.	Richmond Publishing	Sold mostly in Spain and Greece
Your turn	Downie, M.	Richmond Publishing	Sold mostly in Spain and Greece

(Note 1) KELTIC is an ELT mail order organisation based in the UK.

The three selected Teacher's Guides, *Hotline*, *World Class* and *Open Doors*, have been chosen for three main reasons. The first is that they are all currently being used on a large scale in schools in the same 65 countries as their competitor. Secondly, they come from the two main UK ELT publishers who control the largest share of this market. Thirdly, the world of ELT is very small, particularly that of ELT textbooks writers. One of the criteria for choosing the textbooks was that I had not met or did not know the author/s personally because private discussions about the nature of the tasks and the philosophy behind the course would have tainted the research.

Having selected the Guides, my concern here is the analysis of them '*as they are*'. That is, my concern is with the structure, language and messages which they express, implicitly or explicitly, and not with the way teachers use them or how teachers perceive them or what happens in the classroom because or in spite of them. All these are equally valid research areas but do not come into the remit of this study. Equally, my concerns here do not cover the current practice of language learning or teaching as carried out or

observed in the classroom. An analysis of the given teacher text has a different purpose from an ethnographic study of how teachers, or an individual teacher, may draw on the text in the construction of a lesson plan or during a lesson itself. Neither is the study concerned with the ways students approach the tasks proscribed in the Student's book and explained in the Teacher's Guide.

Therefore, the analysis is concerned with what may be labelled *instructions as intentions* as distinct from *instructions as interpretations*. In other words, this analysis considers only what is given in the Teacher's Guide and attempts to analyse critically what the authors' intentions are in the instructions provided, as indicated by the patterns of language. Because the focus was on the texts and not on their use or interpretation by their huge numbers of readers (the teachers) it was not appropriate to involve the teachers in data collection. Given the wide range of circumstances in which each Teacher's Guide is used, decisions about how to select users from different schools in upwards of 65 countries would have presented enormous practical difficulties and, even if a means could have been found to make valid and reliable decisions about which users to select and interview, this would have shifted the emphasis away from the intentions of the discourse and the texts and focussed it, instead, on individual teacher's interpretations.

1.7 Selection of sections within the Teacher's Guides for study

It is unusual for an analysis of discourse to explore a complete text (Fowler: 1994 p.9). However, because one of the aims of the study was to provide a broader picture of the

discursive practices of ELT Teacher's Guides, it was necessary to look at more than one Guide. While a complete analysis of the whole of the Guides would have been desirable, its feasibility was limited by the scope and nature of the dissertation requirements. For this reason, the sections which were chosen for close analysis were those which presented the three key pedagogic areas described earlier. The main messages of the Teacher's Guides are contained in the Introduction and the Unit Notes so the analysis is restricted to these two areas. Each of the three Introductions has sections on Grammar and Project Work and two have sections on Vocabulary. It would be too cumbersome to draw examples from the three complete sets of Unit Notes, so textual analysis is restricted to the first, middle and last few units of each book. The selection of Unit Notes from the beginning, middle and end of the Guides for grammar exercises and from the beginning and middle of the Guides for Vocabulary exercises is designed to show to what extent the key aspects of discourse and content develop during the school year.

1.8 The outline of the dissertation

The study is divided into six chapters. **Chapter 1** provides an outline to the background to the key features of current ELT practice and locates English Language Teaching Teacher's Guides within that. **Chapter 2** explains and justifies the research method, Critical Discourse Analysis, drawn from the work of Norman Fairclough. **Chapter 3** describes the overall structure of the selected materials in order to present their shared design, sequence and contents. **Chapter 4** develops the descriptive framework based on the model presented in Chapter 2 and undertakes a series of close textual analyses of the sections of the Guides which form this study. **Chapter 5** interprets the data from

Chapters 3 and 4 within a framework of intertextual reference following the guidelines of the model from Chapter 2. Chapter 6 concludes by providing an explanation for the results of the findings in line with the guidelines established by the model.

CHAPTER TWO

WHY USE CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AS A RESEARCH TOOL?

2.1 Introduction:

The subject of this dissertation is the discursive practices and content of three Teacher's Guides for English Language Teaching in secondary schools. In order to analyse their structure, language and implicit and explicit messages, a model of critical discourse analysis has been used as the primary tool of investigation. As this is a relatively new research method it is important to define what it is and what it is designed to do and, equally as important, what it is not. Before starting the task, we need to be clear about the key concepts that are deployed in Critical Discourse Analysis. The first section defines the key terms within the current research paradigm, I then move on to present Fairclough's three box model of Critical Discourse Analysis. Finally, I present a modified version of Fairclough's model which is used in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 of this study.

2.2 The value of Critical Discourse Analysis as a research tool within a social theory of discourse

Until the 1980's, discourse analytic tools had been sparingly used in research with the exception of work in the area of ethnography of communication and classroom talk (Mehan, 1979: Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: Luke, 1996). Discourse analysis has its roots in diverse disciplines ranging from different branches of linguistics (sociolinguistics, pyscholinguistics and critical linguistics) semiotics, psychology, anthropology to sociology (McCarthy, 1991: Fairclough, 1992). These draw on different definitions of discourse depending on historical context and political standpoint. Much of the original work in discourse analysis was concerned with speech and the social interaction of speech utterances reflected in speech-act theory and the formulation of conversational maxims (Austin, 1962: Hymes, 1964: Searle, 1969: Grice, 1975). In addition to the conversation analysis which marked the work of Coulthard in the UK (1972) and Goffman (1974) and Labov (1982) in the USA, text grammarians aiming to define the relationships between language elements in texts worked mostly with written language (see McCarthy 1991 p.6) to establish interactions between grammatical forms such as ellipsis, pronominalisation, conjunctions and how anophoric and exophoric reference create cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1985).

It would still be difficult to attempt any discourse analysis without reference to this initial grammar based work, as the notion of 'cohesion', underpinned as it is by the use of particular grammatical structures, is fundamental to the analysis of any piece of writing or speech (Halliday, 1985: Kamler, 1997: Fowler, 1995: Kress and Hodge,

1979). It would be possible to undertake a purely descriptive language analysis of the Teacher's Guides in order to establish the syntactic and lexical features of cohesion. However, such an analysis would not place the texts and the discourse to which they belonged, within a social framework and, as Teacher's Guides are designed to be used within a social context, by teachers in classrooms with students, it is also important that the texts of the Guides are considered as expressions of social practice.

All texts are part of social institutions (for example, schools, hospitals, or governments) and are used to help people make sense of the social practices of the institutions to which the texts belong. Classroom events include social practices and social relationships which are governed by language. Further, teachers are members of a social, professional community with shared habits and language. It is these shared references within the community which create a shared discourse or 'a way of being together in the world' (Gee in Lankshear, 1997: p xv). People are marked as members of a community by what they say and do, and what people say and do is governed by the social and linguistic features of the community. Teachers have a shared discourse in much the same way as students or any other community have a shared discourse.

Halliday's social theory of discourse suggests that our uses of language are inseparable from our social functions and the social contexts of our actions within a community.

> The investigation of language as social behaviour is not only relevant to the understanding of social structure; it is also relevant to the understanding of language. (Halliday: 1973 p. 65)

The result of this interdependence between language and social behaviour is that the texts which make available to the community various meanings and concepts construct a view of the world (Luke in Apple, 1996, p 13).

Social theory is a means of understanding how the relationship between the language and the social functioning of a community and its view of the world are constructed. The social theory which is needed to understand the dynamics of the relationships and meanings within a community has to show how the relationships are made and who exercises power within the community and in whose interests they occur.

How then might social theory reveal these interests? Social theories that attend to questions of power and interest are called 'critical'. A critical theorist, therefore, assumes a questioning role: one which critiques assumptions about the social order. This questioning creates a position of criticality or a principle of reflexive sociology which is designed to reveal aspects of meaning which may otherwise remain concealed. Connerton, sees 'critique' and 'criticality ' as follows:

> Critique... denotes reflection on a system of constraints which are humanly produced... Criticism is brought to bear on objects of experience whose 'objectivity' is called into question: criticism which presuposes that there is a degree of inbuilt deformity... Criticism ... renders transparent what had previously been hidden, and in doing do it initiates a process of self –reflection. (Connerton, 1976, 18 quoted in Fowler 1995 p 4)

It is from this social theory of language and its framework of reflection, questioning, or criticality that the process of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) comes. Before looking at the role that CDA has within this reflexive sociology later in the chapter, the next part of the chapter looks more closely at those terms which are central to the interpretation of Critical Discourse Analysis as used in this study.

2.3 Definitions of key terms; discourse and text

The terms 'discourse' and 'text' have been variously defined and a working definition for this study has been distilled from a number of sources. The term 'discourse' within the phrase 'discourse analysis' owes its origins to the French word 'discours' which allows for three main meanings all of which are used in various contexts within the field of critical linguistics (Foucault: 1984). The first defines discourse as any sentence or utterance which has meaning and thus some communicative effect. Crystal appears to use this meaning in his own definition:

> ... discourse and 'text' can be used in a much broader sense to include all language units with a definable communicative function, whether spoken or written. Some scholars talk about 'spoken or written discourse': others about 'spoken or written text'.(Crystal, D 1987 quoted in Luke p 23)

Crystal tends to suggest that 'discourse' and 'text' are synonyms. A second meaning of discourse covers 'an individualised group of statements' which concern groups of utterances or written sentences which share similar structures and thus appear to have a coherence in terms of standpoint. As Mills (1997) argues, it is this definition which allows us to talk of an inter-related set of concepts which go to make up, for example, 'the discourse of imperialism' or 'the discourse of feminism'. Kress draws on this post structuralist meaning in his definition:

> Discourses are systematically-organised sets of statements which give expression to the meanings and values of an institution.. A discourse provides a set of possible statements about a given area, and organises and gives structure to the manner in which a particular topic, object, process is to be talked about. (Kress, 1985 quoted in Fowler 1995 p. 7)

A third meaning of discourse refers to 'a regulated practice that accounts for a number of statements' and concerns the rules and structures which underpin sentences or utterances rather than the meanings and interpretations which may attach to them. The meaning of

discourse here relates to the pattern and form of the grammatical structures which recur within the text. For the purposes of this study, I draw on the definition offered by Kress above and the following provided by Luke:

> Discourse, then consists of recurrent statements and wordings across texts. These together mark out identifiable systems of meaning and fields of knowledge and belief that, in turn, are tied to ways of knowing, believing and categorizing the world and modes of action. (Luke, 1996, p 15)

These 'recurrent statements and wordings' constitute a way of looking at the world and a means of moulding and shaping the way individuals think. People's behaviour is constructed by the discourses available to them. Bakhtin, in particular, argued that discourse is an expression of a 'voice' which is identifiable through 'namings' or 'glossifications' and which change and develop by drawing on other discourses (Mey, quoted in Luke, 1996). For example, English Language Teaching may draw on a range of discourses, from psychology to industry.

To sum up, then, discourse involves a transaction using language between writer and reader, speaker and listener and the nature of this transaction is shaped by the interests of the producer (the writer or speaker) and the consumer (the listener or reader). The transaction has a purpose: the text producer intends, in some way, to influence the consumer: such influence may be positive as well as negative. The discourse of the transaction reflects a view of the world as it is and also how it may or should be.

'Text', like discourse, refers to both the spoken and the written but is traditionally understood, as Fairclough argues, to be understood as a specific whole 'work' such as a poem or novel or a discrete part of it such as a chapter or stanza (1995). This whole

work is marked by a system of boundaries and inner constraints 'held intact by generations of unchanged reference, reverence and emulation' (Wilamomitz, quoted in Said, 1987 p.9). One of the key distinguishing features between discourse and text is that, whereas discourses may be defined in political terms (the discourses of feminism or imperialism, for example), texts are categorised according to the internal rules of their construction, or 'problematics' as Said put it (1987). A text is 'just itself, rather than a representation of anything else'. In other words, a text is a 'product'; for example, a shopping list is a text, and, like all other texts, exists only because it is the product of marks on a piece of paper. The text is the product of a process of production and, as a product, is open to interpretation and a range of uses. The shopping list text is an *aide memoire* for the shopper in the supermarket or a crucial clue for the detective solving a crime or a piece of social history for the archaeologists researching an old house or dietary evidence for the nutritionist. Luke, drawing on Halliday and Hasan (1985) defines text as 'language in use' which is any spoken or written language which has coherence. (1996 p.13) Texts, then, are representations of a series of conventions which combine to create a particular genre of writing. The next section offers some definitions of genre and text type with a view to positioning ELT Teacher's Guides.

2.4 Teacher's Guides: Genre or Text Type?

The notions of what characterises a genre and how it is differentiated from a text type continues to be contested in the literature (Paltridge, 1996: p. 238, Fairclough:1995 p.13). However, there is consensus that for a text to be recognised as belonging to a particular genre it needs to follow a fixed schema (Bakhtin, 1953: Lemke, 1995) and demonstrate some or all stages and features in a fixed or stabilised sequence. These are

external criteria and denote a genre as being circumscribed by consensually recognised conventions and established boundaries and characterised by specific language activity which shares some set of communicative purposes (Swales, 1990 p 58). Although Kress and Threadgold argue for a much more flexible view of genre which can allow for an acceptance of the hybridization of features of different genres within the same text necessarily brought about by the speed of change in modern technologies (Kress and Threadgold 1998), recognised genres such as news broadcasts, political speeches, novels and plays exist because, despite fluidity of changes, they have consensually recognised conventions and characteristic textual structures. Biber's corpus-based study of twenty-three genres (1988) distinguishes between 'genre' which describe types of activities which regularly occur in society and are 'considered by the speech community as being of the same type' and text types which are texts which share similar linguistic patterns (Richards et al: 1992, quoted in Paltridge,1996 p.237). This distinction is supported by Luke:

> ... genres generally operate within particular institutional and /or disciplinary fields and, hence, are constructed from *affiliated discourses....*
> They must be constructed and used conventionally in particular institutional contexts
> ... genres are institutionally situated, goal oriented and conventionalised forms of social action (Luke, in Apple, 1996 p17)

Many of the characteristics which Luke uses to define 'genre' apply to ELT secondary school Teacher's Guides: they operate within a particular kind of institution (schools), within the disciplinary field of English Language teaching, are goal oriented (to help teachers teach) and are considered by the members of the speech community to be of the same type. However, any genre, irrespective of any fluidity of form and content and hybidrisation of linguistic and graphic structure, can only be considered a genre once its

characteristic textual structures have been analysed and consensually accepted as operating within the perceived boundaries and constraints of its model. There needs to be, in other words, a literature which at first defines and then debates the nature of these boundaries and constraints. The literature on Teacher's Guides is so minimal that there has been little opportunity to establish agreement on the boundaries and textual forms and features which would be characteristic of the genre. This lack of consensuality, according to Luke, mean that the notion of Teacher's guides constituting a genre is still 'contested':

> ... the teacher's guidebook, historically developed for particular institutional purposes ... has some predictable and characteristic textual forms and features...but varies greatly depending on the disciplinary discourse, fields and age-grade level in question. ... To try to describe the formal features of the teacher's guidebooks would require some generalisation and some momentary stabilisation of a ...contested genre. (Luke: 1996 p.16)

Because of the contested nature of the notion of genre and the lack of recognition of the characteristics and stages and sequence which mark it, it is perhaps more useful within this work to consider instead, the Teacher's Guide as an example of a 'text type'. These are texts which have similar co-occurences of linguistic patterns (Paltridge, 1966 p.237: Luke, 1996 p.16) and can be identified with increasing levels of specificity. For example, Fairclough cites the example of a news interview as a text type: more specifically, this could be a TV news interview: more specifically again, this could be a BBC 2 news interview: more specifically again this could be a Jeremy Paxman, BBC2 news interview, and so on. It would seem that these levels of specificity apply also to Teacher's Guides: ranging from Teacher's Guides for all subjects, to Teacher's Guides for all ELT and more specifically again, to Teacher's Guides for ELT for secondary schools. As further research is carried out and a literature develops, it may be that the

stages of ELT Teacher's Guides, their sequence (whether fixed or not) and discourse patterns will lead to a consensual recognition of their position as a genre.

2.5 Critical discourse analysis: an approach

Critical discourse analysis builds on the Hallidayian theory of language and assumes that language use should be studied in a social context and considers that members of a community negotiate knowledge, identity, status and social relations in the every day life of the institutions which they share. It assumes, with Gee, that there is no other approach to texts, language and literacy other than a socio-cultural one. (Gee, 1996 p.5)

A socio-cultural approach recognises the social event of interaction:

> The actual reality of language... is not the abstract system of linguistic forms, nor the isolated monologic utterance, nor the psycho-physiological act of its implementation but *the social event of....interaction*.....(Bakhtin, 1929/1986 quoted in Lemke)

These interactions are habits of activity which are characteristic of a community whose use of grammar, lexicon, references, assumptions and emphases bind them together by commonly shared manipulations of their discourse and where

> ... access to the defining discourse is controlled by conditions of membership and where solidarity necessarily carries implications of power (Widdowson, 1998 p143)

Critical Discourse Analysis, like Critical theory, is concerned with relations of power embedded in ideology and which is elaborated through social practices informed and constructed by language. Those engaged in particular instances of social practice can, therefore, be seen as mediators or interpreters of something which already exists. Teachers, therefore, operating with a certain framework of social practice, interpret an ideology which already exists and which is reinforced by the discourse of the texts around them. The purpose of a critical model is to establish systems which explicate

how the language of these texts operates to sustain relations of power and influence through social practice. This will bring language and social practice closer together in line with the Hallidayian term 'socio-semantic'.

Luke (1996) and Fairclough (1989) argue that language is refractive rather than transparent and it is through its opaqueness rather than its transparency that it reconstructs versions of the social world and social relations. According to Luke, the result of this is that '... the possibility of an ideologically disinterested and non-distorting text is at best debatable. By this account, all texts are normative, shaping and constructing rather than simply reflecting and describing'. (Luke 1996 p.14) Some texts have more influence than others on shaping and moulding their readers or listeners. Written texts, available for photocopying and re-reading, shared and discussed with colleagues, can often have a greater impact within the institution of education than spoken texts as, once archived, 'acquire permanency and public accessibility'. (Krishnamurthy:1996 p.129 in Caldas-Coulthard and Coulthard). Teacher's Guides, as written texts which are designed to be used on a regular basis, can play a key role in shaping and constructing the social practice or 'lived experience' of teachers.

These 'parameters of lived experience' mould what Fairclough (1989) has termed 'members' resources', (MR) that is, the language knowledge, representations of the world, values, beliefs and so on that exist inside the head of each individual which shape his/her contribution to social practice. Critical discourse analysis is designed to provide analytic tools to reveal how this shaping takes place in an individual text or discourse. It

also attempts to make transparent to readers the devices which texts use to construct the world view of the discourse and the positioning of its readers.

However, it must be conceded that there is some concern that the analytic tools, techniques and methods of discourse analysis are less than rigorous and further, it is argued, these approaches do not contain a clear conceptual scheme and that the analyses so far available have been fragmentary or partial (Fowler 1996. Widdowson, 1998). These are not inconsiderable concerns and are reminiscent of Eisner and Peshkin's critiques of qualitative research methods:

> What does one make of an approach .... that depends upon the unique aptitides or proclivities of the investigator, that possesses no standardised method, that focuses upon non randomly selected situations and that yields questionable generalisations by conventional [sic] research criteria? Indeed, are we justified in referring to the use of such a collection of procedures as 'research'? (Eisner and Peshkin, 1990, quoted in Lazaraton)

While heeding these concerns, it is worthwhile highlighting that Critical Discourse Analysis is guided not by hypothesis but by questions, issues and a search for patterns (Paton, 1992). Once the patterns of language are found in a text, they can be described, interpreted and explained by the researcher whose emic perspective means that individual perspectives on what constitutes a pattern worthy of analysis need to be included as part of the procedure. It could be argued too, that the validity and reliability of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) can only be tested through rigorous analysis over a range of different text types. The robustness of CDA is therefore matched against its explanatory power.

2. 6 Fairclough's model of Critical Discourse Analysis

As we have seen, 'a standard, consistent apparatus' which can be used for analysing all genres of discourse does not yet exist (Fowler: 1996 p.9), and researchers need to construct workable models of enquiry from the variety of frameworks which are available. The working model used for the analysis of the texts of the three Teacher's Guides, described and discussed later in this chapter, has been modified from Fairclough's 1989 model. It is significant that he himself stressed:

> ... the procedure should not be treated as holy writ – it a guide and not a blueprint. In some cases, readers using it may find that some parts are overly detailed or even irrelevant for their purposes. In other cases, they may find it insufficiently detailed...
> (Fairclough, 1989 p 110)

This model of enquiry was chosen because the procedure works well as a prototype, and, as with all prototypes, modifications may need to made easily to meet the requirements of different circumstances: the model lens itself well to such modifications. The other advantage of Fairclough's model is not only does it provide a clearly staged sequence of enquiry but also that each stage raises specific questions about language use and pattern within the text. The researcher can then follow this staged sequence during the text analysis, trusting that the search for answers to the questions will reveal the key language patterns particular to that text type or discursive practice. Thirdly, Fairclough's model is based on the assumption that language use is a form of social practice rather than an individual activity. This social practice, as a reflection of the social structure which it shapes and reflects, is open to critique. In order to understand the power relations between the producer of the language (in this case, the writer of the Teacher's Guide) and the consumer (the teacher/reader), a model was required which was designed to identify how the discourse of the texts reflected the their

relative power and positions. However, in order to make clear the ancestry of the modified model developed for use in this study, in particular the assumptions which underpin it, it is important to detail Fairclough's model first. Modifications to the original framework are discusssed in a later section.

2.7 The starting point: the three boxes

Fairclough's (1989) model for CDA consists of three interlinked processes of analysis which are related to three 'dimensions of discourse' (Janks, 1997). These three interlinking processes are neither linear nor cyclical and are normally shown as three boxes, one inside the other. In order to display more clearly how the three layered system works, Fig 2.1 (over) shows how the three stages of the analysis are independent of each other, and, at the same time, interdependent.

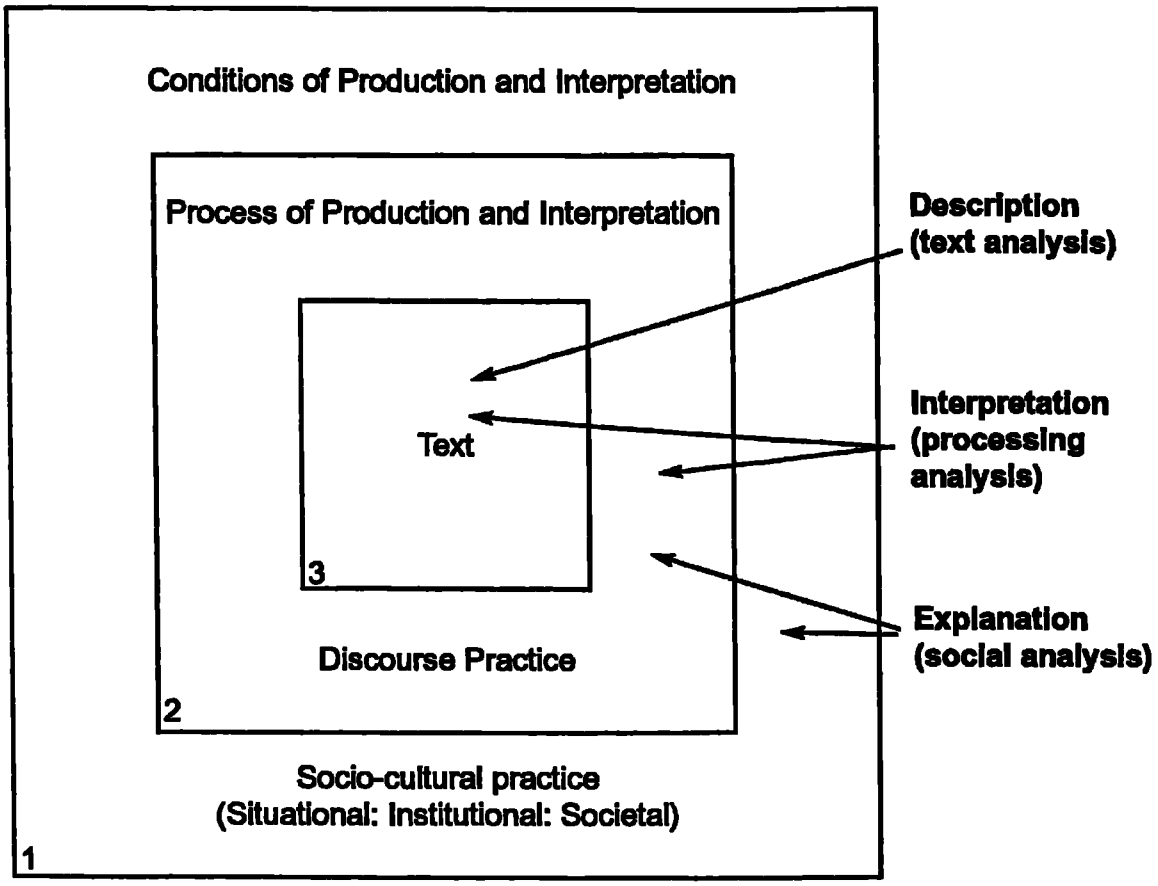

Fig 2.1 Fairclough's three box model of Critical Discourse Analysis

The boxes are best considered three dimensionally, but not as Russian dolls where each is a smaller replica of another. Here, each box is of equal importance and provides a different analytical point of entry. In this way, each box could be considered first in the analytical process. However, for ease of description, the processes as circumscribed by each box are considered sequentially in this study.

The first process, description, describes the grammar and vocabulary of the text. The second, interpretation , *interprets* the text within a socio-cultural context and the third,

explanation, *explains* the text within the socio-cultural context. These three processes, description, interpretation and explanation, are linked to three interconnecting dimensions of discourse. The first dimension focuses on the text which is to be analysed. The second dimension is concerned with the processes by which the text is produced and received: for example, whether the text is written or spoken, or whether it is read, watched or listened to. The third dimension focuses on the socio-historical conditions which control the production of the text. All three dimensions relate to different levels of social organisations: the *situational* or immediate social environment in which social action takes place; the *institutional* or wider matrix for the *type* of activity; and the *societal*, referring to the level of society as a whole.

Explanation and understanding of the nature of social practice needs to take account of influences at each of these three levels, since, at each level, the readers' interpretative background' (which Fairclough calls 'Members' Resources' or 'MR') is determined or transformed. Social practices such as teaching are to be understood in terms of the conditions under which they *exist* (their societal context) and the conditions under which they *appear* (their situational and institutional context). The value of this double tri-partite method of analysis is that it provides numerous points of entry to the text and the interlinking and overlapping processes allow linguistic patterns to be revealed more easily than a linear method of analysis. Further, as the three box framework allows for a simultaneous and non-sequential description, interpretation and explanation of the text, it serves to remind the analyst of key areas of enquiry. In this way, the boxes provide

three skeletons for the analysis and each of them can be fleshed out by establishing a series of discrete classifications and questions which can guide the enquiry.

2.8 Describing the Text

Central to the analysis is a description of the text. In order to ensure that all aspects of the texts are described, the model offers three main loci of attention, or classifications; vocabulary, grammar and textual structures. In the same way as the boxes provide a mobile framework for analysis, depending on the text under scrutiny, these three analyses may also take place sequentially or simultaneously and each of the three classifications is sub-divided into discrete sections which are linked to that area. The chart below shows how Fairclough's model for vocabulary analysis covers four areas:

Table 2.1 Fairclough's four vocabulary features

Metaphor Ideological attachments	***Experiential values*** Synonyms, antonyms
Relational values Euphemisms, formal and informal	***Expressive values*** World view

Metaphor, normally associated with literary discourses and designed to represent one experience in terms of another, is included as metaphors may reveal 'ideological attachments' which suggest ways of perceiving issues and concepts.[1] Secondly, an analysis of overwording, rewording, synonyms, antonyms and hyponomy provides information about the experiential values of the lexis used in the text. Thirdly, an

analysis of the use of euphemisms and the frequency of formal and informal words reveals the means by which social relations are constructed in the text. Finally, an analysis of the expressive values of the vocabulary reveals the writer's evaluation or world view. The study of expressive values has most often been used in an analysis of the persuasive language of advertisements and political discourse but can also find its way into other discourses, including that of Teacher's Guides. Fairclough's model for vocabulary analysis provides a range of tools for the researcher to analyse the choice and patterns of lexis, depending on the nature of the text. A similar 'tool-kit' is provided for the analysis of the grammar of the text.

Fairclough's grammar model draws on five of Halliday's nine grammatical resources. One of the nine resources is lexicalisation. However, as shown above, in Fairclough's model vocabulary has been given a section of its own. The remaining eight grammatical resources are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Halliday's grammatical resources

Patterns of transitivity	Use of active and passive voice	Nominalisation	Mood
Modality	Thematic structure	Information focus	Cohesion devices

Fairclough's model uses three of the four sections in the Vocabulary analysis in the grammar analysis and places five of Halliday's resources in the sections. This allows for

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[1] *Within the media, for example, the metaphor of 'cancer' when applied to riots suggests that a riot is a disease which needs to be 'cured' for the benefit of society as a whole. The 'ideological attachment' to this metaphor would suggest that the writer believes that riots threaten the health of a society.*

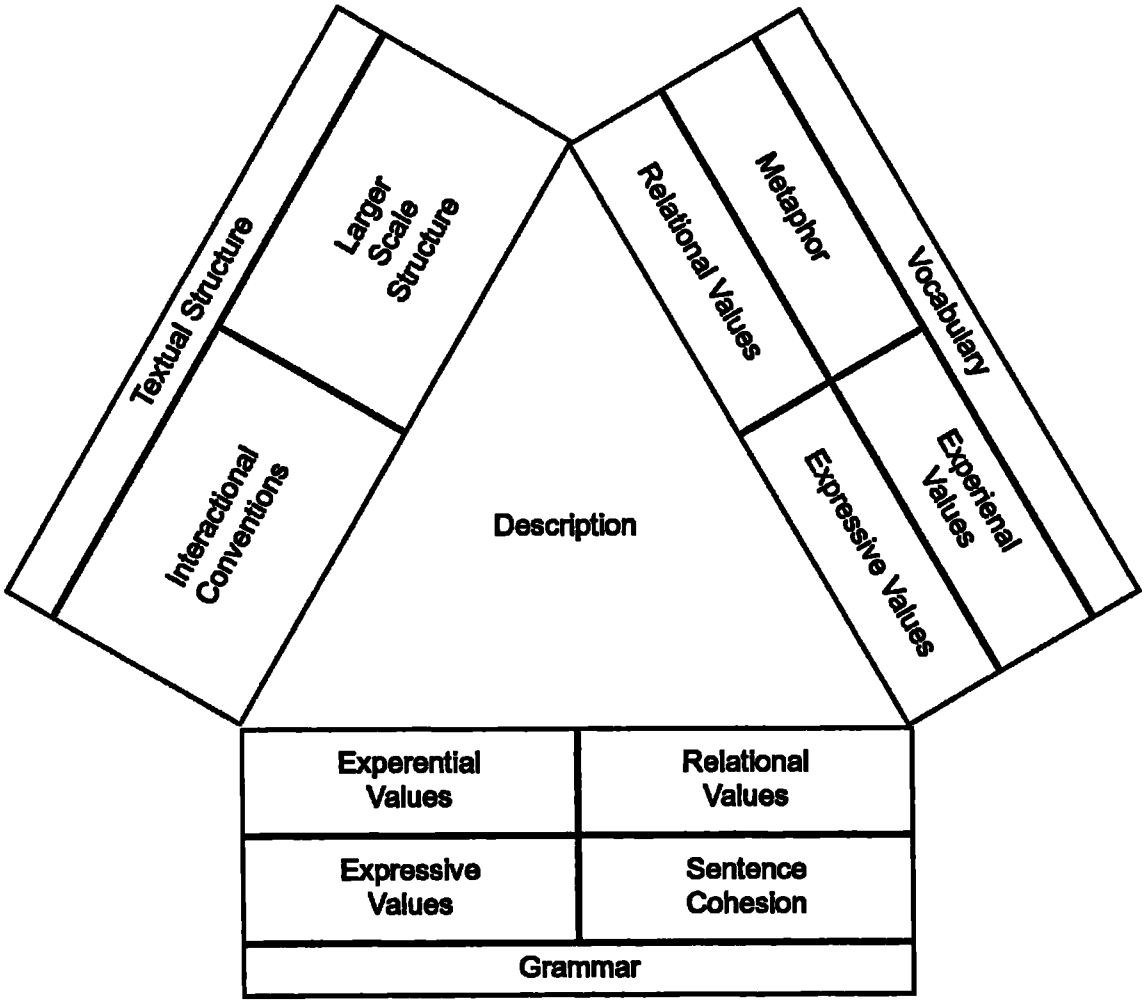
easier transition between these two key formal features of the text which enables a researcher to analyse the experiential, relational or expressive patterns of lexis at the same time as analysing those of the grammar. The four Hallidayian resources are shown in Table 2.3.

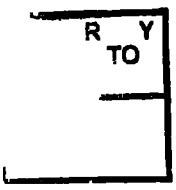
Table 2.3 Key features of Fairclough's grammar analysis

Experiential values of grammar: This draws on Halliday's 1 Use of active and passive voice 2 Nominalisation	***Relational values*** This draws on Halliday's Resource of Modality
Expressive This draws on Halliday's resource of 'mood'	***Sentence cohesion*** This draws on Halliday's resource of Cohesion

Halliday's resource of transitivity, that is, an analysis of recurring verbs within a text, can fall within the grammar or the lexical analysis. An analysis of these nine grammatical resources reveal syntactic patterns , or 'metafunctions' (Halliday, 1985) and ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings in the discourse. The third part of Fairclough's model of description requires an analysis of the textual structures: this focuses first, on the interactional conventions displayed in a text and secondly, on the larger scale structure of the overall text. The first focus (interactional conventions/ turntaking) is a legacy from the original work by Searle (1969) on the analysis of speech discourse. The second draws on two other Hallidayian resources – thematic structure and information focus- and is designed to analyse the shared and recurring features within the overall structure of a text. Figure 2.2 below shows how all three aspects of the Description stage as described above model are linked.

Fig 2.2 Fairclough's Description Stage

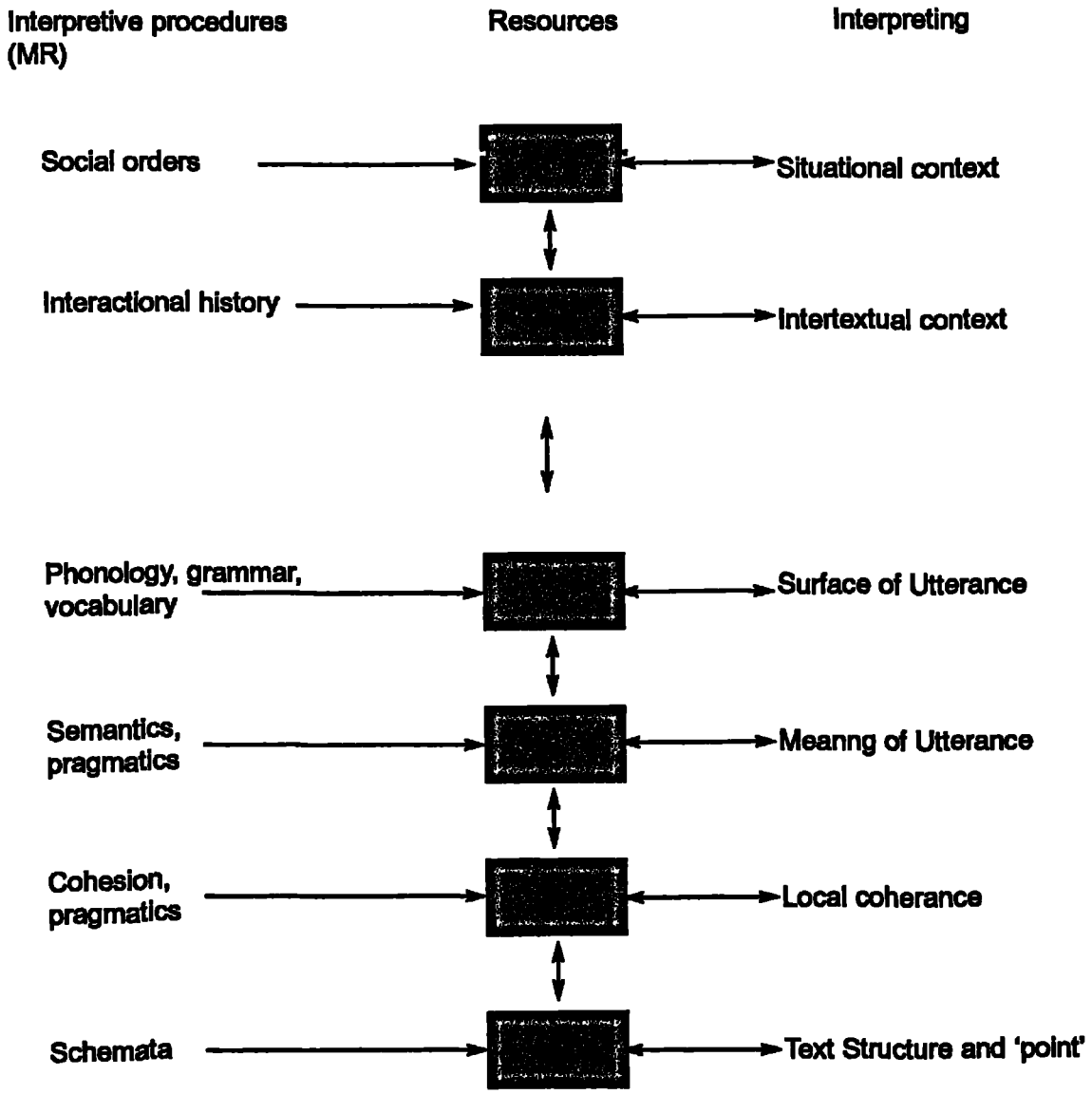




2.9 Interpreting the text

The second stage of Fairclough's model concerns interpretation of which there are six major domains: two relate to the interpretation of context, the situational context and the intertextual context, and four to means of interpreting the text itself. Figure 2.3 shows, and glosses, these six aspects of interpretation.

Figure 2.3 Fairclough's domains of interpretation



The first two, situational and intertextual, concern the relationship of the text to its context. Surface of utterance relates to the process which readers use to convert sounds or marks on paper into some recognisable words. For this, interpreters need to draw on their knowledge of phonology, grammar and vocabulary. Meaning of utterance relies on the reader or interpreter making sense of the combinations of sentences, phrases and words in order to decode both the explicit and implicit meanings of the sentences. This is linked to the fifth domain in which interpreters, readers, are required to understand how a section, a paragraph, of a text hangs together to make a logical whole. Readers may have to supply their own mechanisms of coherence to bridge any gaps, by inferring the connections the writer wishes to make. These gaps are to be bridged by the assumptions which readers bring to the text and the assumptions which the writer considers the readers will share. The sixth domain is concerned with the reader's interpretation of the whole text and making sense of how it hangs together as complete text. Fairclough adds 'point' to this stage of the interpretative process which he defines as:

> The point of a text is a summary interpretation of the text as a whole which interpreters arrive at, and which is what tends to be stored in long-term memory so as to be available for recall. (Fairclough, 1989 p 144)

2.10 Explaining the text

Given that critical discourse analysis is concerned with the social effects of the role of language, the aim of the explanation stage is to show in which ways the discourse is part of the social practice of the institution of which it belongs, for example, whether it reproduces the norms of the social institution it describes or whether it challenges them. Any discourse is shaped by the norms of the institution it represents and the explanation

stage allows for a critique of the social practices which underpin the norms of that institution. Fairclough's model of explanation focuses on relations of power and the social processes and practices which sustain the *status quo* of power relations within the institution. However, the notion of power and struggle here do not necessarily mean that the text itself, or the discourse of which the text is part, evidences conflict. What Fairclough means is that the beneath the surface of the text there is always evidence of previous or current social conflict or signs of unequal distribution of power.

Janks' transitivity analysis of the verbs and processes in the Standard Bank advertisement in South Africa provides an excellent example of how a text can show how the values of different power relations, past and present ('values in transition') result in different discourses being drawn upon to construct the text. (Janks, 1997). Similarly, Hoey's analysis (1996) of dictionary definitions of 'man' and 'woman' in the Cobuild dictionary reveals evidence of power relations in the 'male oriented establishment ' of lexicography and also in the use of authentic language as expressed in the corpus.

> The corpus was in large part a collection of instances of language being used as an instrument of power and control (Hoey, 1995 p163 in Caldas-Coulthard and Coulthard))

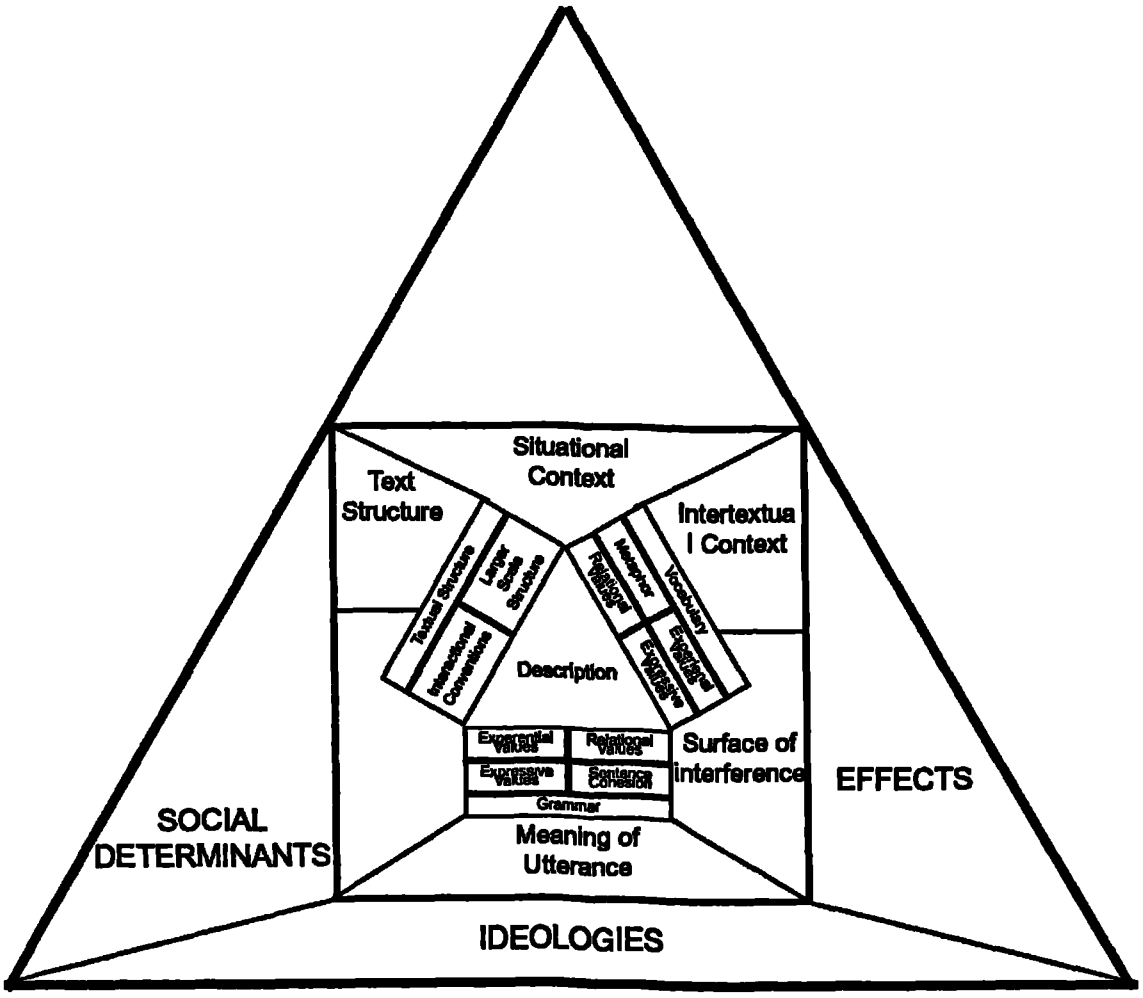
Under three headings, Fairclough offers three questions which guide the analysis of the explanation as shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Fairclough's three questions for Stage 3: Explanation.

Social determinants: What power relations at situational, institutional and societal levels help shape this discourse?	**Ideologies** What elements of the readers resources (MR) which are drawn upon have an ideological character?	**Effects** How is the discourse positioned in relation to struggles at the situational, institutional and societal levels?

Fairclough's model began with the skeleton of three interlinking boxes but flesh is put on the skeletons by means of the sub sections for each box. A fuller version of the model is shown in Figure 2.4 below.

Figure 2.4 Fairclough's complete model with sub-headings



The following section describes in which ways Fairclough's three box framework has been modified to better meet the demands of this study. I also offer a justification for these modifications in the light of the purposes of this study.

2. 11 The modified model used in this study

The discourse field in this study is English Language Teaching . The purpose of the analysis is to determine how the patterns of language in the texts reflect a world view and position the writer and the reader. As Fairclough's model is a guide and not a 'blueprint', it is a useful starting point for constructing a model which is appropriate for the analysis of any text from any discourse.

Fairclough's first box focusses on textual analysis and covers grammar, vocabulary and textual structure. As the texts under consideration in this study are more extensive than is often the case (Fowler, 1995. Fairclough, 1995), the starting point in Chapter 3 will be an analysis of the textual structure and sequence of the three Guides so that characteristics of the text type are shown. This provides a context for the closer textual analysis which follows in Chapter 4. The analysis of the textual structure is more detailed than is usual in a discourse analysis study because the characteristic features of Teacher's Guides have not yet been consensually recognised, no assumptions can be made about their structure or recurring features. Without this supportive structural framework, the textual analysis would be fragmentary and unfocused.

The second stage of the analysis is concerned with the language of the texts, in particular the grammar. Halliday argues that grammar needs to be the foundation stone

of the textual analysis in the belief that an analysis which is not based on grammar is not an analysis but merely a running commentary on the text (1985). The grammar analysis has to be both functional and semantic so that the semantic patterns which are revealed as a result of the analysis of the grammatical categories display the choices which the writer of the text has made successively throughout the text. These choices are often revealed through the use of a transitivity analysis which, drawing on the theory of register, shows that different activities produce characteristic differences in the frequencies of action or relation verbs. The analysis of each of the verbs and the participant to whom these verbs relate shows what types of processes, or activities, are mentioned in the text in relation the people who are doing them.

The view that grammar should be seen as a playing a semantic role in the textual structure makes it possible for transitivity to be placed in the domain of both grammar and vocabulary within the textual analysis. Halliday explains that:

> Our most powerful conception of reality is that it consists of goings-on: of doing, happening, feeling and being. These goings-on are sorted out in the semantic system of the language... Transitivity specifies the different types of processes that are recognised in the language and the structures by which they are expressed.(Halliday, 1985)

Teacher's Guides texts are about 'goings-on' in the classroom and are designed to explain to teachers how to do things and how to help students do things. The general focus on 'doing' in this text type requires a method of analysis which will look closely at the verbs which describe the 'doings' of the teachers and the students. Because the 'doings' and the 'goings-on' suggested by the Teachers Guide texts are key to an understanding of the norms of English Language teaching discourse this has been

foregrounded in the modified model and is seen as means of combining the textual analysis of vocabulary and grammar. Table 2.5 below shows Halliday's six aspects of transitivity which will form the basis of the transitivity study in Chapter 4.

Table 2.5 Halliday's six aspects of transitivity

	Processes	
Types of doing	*Material*	*Doing* *Creating*
	Verbal	*Eg Saying*
	Mental	*Eg Feeling* *Thinking* *Perceiving*
Types of being	*Relational*	*Being* *Having*
	Behavioural	*Physiological: eg breathing, dreaming, sleeping* *Psychological: eg smiling,laughing, crying*
	Existential	*Eg things which happen or exist*

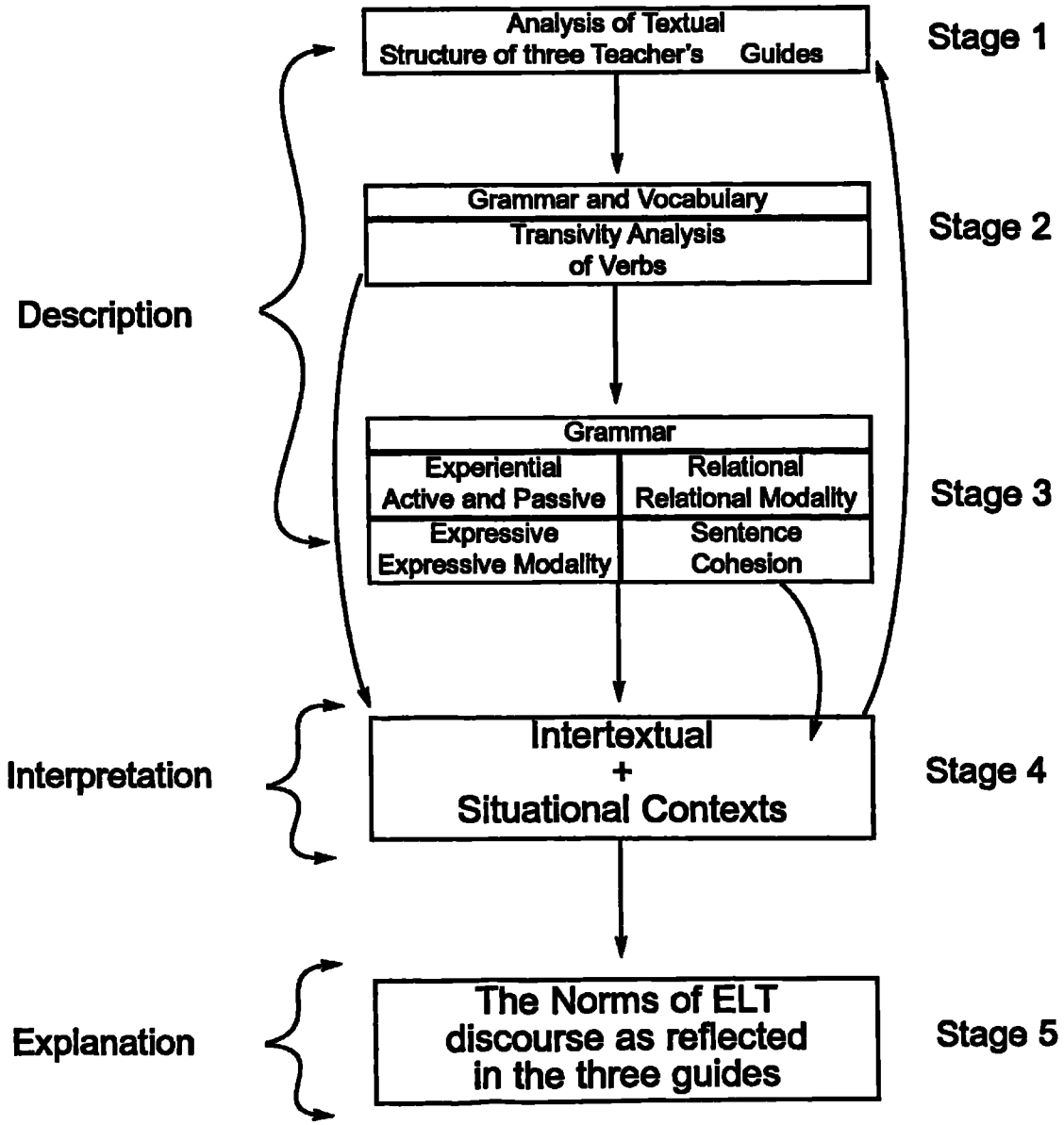
Once the transitivity analysis has been completed, other aspects of grammar patterns can be analysed in line with Fairclough's model and questions. Table 2.6 shows which questions will guide the analysis in each of the four areas of grammar analysis.

Table 2.6 Areas of grammar analysis and questions

Experiential values of grammar: active and passive	***Relational values : modality***
1 What type of process and participant predominate? 2 Is agency clear? 3 Are sentences active or passive? 4 Are sentences positive or negative?	1 What modes are used? 2 Are there important features of relational modality? 3 Which pronouns are used and how?
Expressive: mood	***Sentence cohesion: cohesion devices***
1 Are there important features of expressive modality?	1 How are sentences linked together? 2 What means are used to refer inside and outside the text?

Chapter 5 is concerned with the second stage of the framework, interpretation and, central to the process of interpretation, is an analysis of the situational and intertextual context. An interpretation of the situational context requires questions about the time and place of the texts and whether they could have been produced earlier or later than they appeared. The use of three texts in the analysis, one published four years earlier than the other, allows for some points of situational and intertextual context to arise. Secondly, a comparison of the the intertextual links between the three Teachers Guides will show to what extent they reflect the norms of English Language Teaching discourse as described in Chapter 1. Chapter 6 is concerned with the final stage of the analysis – explanation - and places Teacher's Guides within the overall context of the discourse of English Language teaching by concluding to what extent the texts are positioned in relation to the situational, institutional and societal contexts. The flowchart in Figure 2.5 on page 56 shows the stages of the modified model of analysis.

Figure 2.5 Complete flowchart of modified model



2.12 Conclusions

In this chapter, by drawing on the work of Fairclough and Halliday, I have sought to lay out a framework which can be used to guide the critical analysis of the discourse of the Teacher's Guides. The systematic use of the model and the questions, which have been taken from Fairclough, have been designed to draw out discursive aspects of the texts, that is, the grammar and vocabulary, and, at the same time, to attempt to find clues in the discourse which will place the texts within the larger discourse of ELT in terms of social and institutional relations of power. Three stages of Fairclough's model were identified, each of which serve different purposes. The first stage describes the text in terms of its language and this part of the model relies heavily on Halliday's work on the functions of language. The second stage asks the analyst to return to the text from a different point of entry in order to establish what the discourse clues reveal about the presuppositions made in the text. The third stage of Fairclough's model is the explanation in which the text is analysed within the three wider contexts.

The chapter has indicated how the model used in this study has been modified from Fairclough's original model and described how transivity analyses would be used to explore the processes undertaken by teachers and students as shown by the verbs used in the texts. In Fairclough's model the textual analysis of the grammar and vocabulary of the text is the usual starting point, but because this study concerns larger texts than is usual for discourse analysis, it seemed more logical to start with an overview of the contents and structure and sequence of the three texts. This follows in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

THE STRUCTURAL FEATURES OF THE THREE TEACHER'S GUIDES

3.1 Introduction

The data for this study is presented in two chapters. In order to ground the closer textual analysis within a broader context, this chapter first describes the overall structure of each of the Teacher's Guides and then compares the structure and contents of each of the Introductions. It provides a description of the sequencing of the texts and compares similarities and differences between them. Chapter Four follows with textual analysis of parts of the three Introductions and the Unit Notes and focuses in particular on the key features of grammar. They are then drawn together and interpreted in Chapter Five.

3.2 The Teacher's Guides as products

The design of the Guides and visuality of the pages are the starting point for this description and concerns the Guides as *'products'* in terms of their appearance rather than their contents. In terms of design, the first key difference is that of the three

Teacher's Guides in the study *Hotline* (Hutchinson,1991), *World Class* (Harris and Mower, 1993) and *Open Doors* (Ward and Whitney, 1993), *Hotline* is the only one which is 'interleaved': that is, the Student's book pages are included as a double page spread, full size, after each double page spread of Teacher's Notes. Thus, the main body of the book has a spread of Unit Notes followed by a spread of Student Book pages. As this makes the book very long and is designed to be used in classroom time in every lesson, the Guide is spiral bound. The other two Teacher's Guides, *Open Doors* and *World Class* are not interleaved with Students pages, are much shorter and lighter and not spiral bound. All three Teacher's Guides are the same size as the Student's book (but not the same size as each other) and have the same cover as the accompanying Student's book.

The iconic characteristics of all three Guides are very similar: all three books are printed in black and white (UK publishers have not yet produced any Teacher's Guide in full colour) with the exception of the Students' Pages in *Hotline*. In all three Teacher's Guides the text is presented in two vertical columns on each page throughout, in both the Introduction and the Unit Notes. In all three Guides the columns are the same width (8cms) with roughly eight words on each line. The extended texts are broken into short paragraphs, sometimes of only one sentence and usually not more than four with the result that there may be between thirteen paragraphs on a page (for example, *World Class*, p. 2) and twenty (*Hotline*, p.vi). Sections are clearly marked by headings in bold or in upper case and numbered, as in *Hotline*, and there may be as many as eight headings on one page (*World Class*, p.3) which serve to guide the reader through the

text. The visual impression of a page of the three Introductions, therefore, is that although there is a large amount of text it is constructed in small, digestible chunks, despite the absence of visual material. None of the three Guides has any photographs, charts or line drawings except in the photocopiable material at the end.

All three Guides use the same font throughout the Introduction and Unit Notes– a serif font point size 12 which is not the same as the font used in the Student's Book which is a sans serif. The headings are in the same sans serif font. In the Unit Notes for all three Guides, the answers to the exercises and the tapescripts follow on in each exercise and are distinguished from the teacher's notes by being placed in boxes (*Hotline*) or in a smaller font size *(World Class)* or in italics *(Open Doors)*. In *Hotline* and *Open Doors*, the tapescripts are signalled by an icon: one shows a cassette *(Hotline)* and one shows headphones *(Open Doors)*. In each Guide the Unit Notes start for each unit on a fresh page or spread.

3.3 Differences in product

The key visual difference between the three Guides is the interleaving of *Hotline*. Although this presentation is popular with teachers (CUP Marketing data), its production costs are very high and because the majority of Teacher's Guides are given away, the publishers need to be sure in advance that the Course Book will sell in large enough quantities and at a high enough unit margin (profit) to justify this expense. As all three of the Student's Books which accompany the Guides in the study have sold in large numbers, it may at first seem surprising that the other two Guides have not been

interleaved. However, *Hotline* was published at a time when the key markets were in Western Europe, for example, Spain, Italy and Greece where unit margins per course book may be three times as high as those in the markets which opened up for course book sales after 1991, namely the former Eastern bloc countries, in particular Poland, Hungary, the Balkans and Russia.

As with all products, the wealth of the local economies dictates the range of prices which publishers can ask for course books . The differences in these ranges of prices produce differing levels of average unit income for the publisher. Therefore, depending on where the publisher is targetting sales of a particular product, decisions will be made at the initial stages of production about the unit income margins of all the components of the course book in relation to costs. The decision to interleave the Teacher's Guide is one made by marketing, not only for the country markets which the course book is aimed at, but also for the kinds of teacher who are designed to use it.[2] An interleaved Guide with its spiral binding is designed to become publically recognised, as the teacher takes it into class as the 'Teacher's book'. Teachers who may feel apprehensive about teaching English, such as recently qualified teachers, those with low levels of English, or those who have had minimal training, may feel more secure with a Guide which is designed to accompany them openly into class and to be referred to frequently. It could

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[2]Footnote:There are roughly four average unit income bands. For a course book in western Europe (including UK) and Japan the average unit income on a Student Book with a cover price of around £8.50 is between £4.06 in Japan to £5.03 in Spain. Argentina, Mexico, Brazil, Peru , Taiwan fall into the second band and produce in the region of £3 unit income per course book. Poland, Chile, Ecuador, in the third band,, produce around £2.50 per copy and Russia, Romania, Hungary – all very large markets, but in the fourth band, produce around £1.70 unit income per copy.[2]

be argued that the appearance of the Guide creates the expectation that the teacher is to make frequent and open reference to the Guide thereby legitimating a form of pedagogic practice which is dependent on the use of the Teacher's Guide. The short lines which result from the two vertical columns mean that teachers can skim the appropriate section rapidly for reference to find the answers or the tapescript while they teach.

One of the drawbacks of the interleaved Teacher's Guide is that the design of a double page for Teacher's notes followed by a double page spread of Student Book page means that the Teacher's Notes which refer to the exercises on the Student spread must fit on the two pages allocated for this. The space provided not only governs the amount of support which the text can offer to the teacher, but also how extensive the tapescript can be and the length of the answers for the exercises. This means that the decisions taken by the Marketing department impact on the content of the Guide, and by extension, on the methodology of the course book. Nevertheless, space seems to be at a premium in all Guides. The Unit Notes texts in all three Guides are designed to be as concise as possible by preceding most of the sentences with a bullet point. This makes each of the stages of teaching an exercise easier to locate and, at the same time, suggests a firm sequence of pedagogic events. Extracts from the Unit Notes from each of the Guides for a listening exercise are shown below to show similarity of visual presentation.

Hotline:

- Divide the class into pairs
- Students read the text
- Explain the activity
- (cassette icon) Play the tape. Students listen and underline the parts that are wrong
- Play the tape again. Students listen.
- Students correct the text

- Choose one student to give the correct version of the text. Other students say whether they agree or not. (p. T104)

World Class:
Listening
- Tell students to listen to the sentences and count the number of words
- Play the example and stop the cassette. Focus on the short form.
- Play the other sentences, twice if necessary (p. 48)

Open Doors:
Exercise 6
- Play the first part of the cassette exercise. Students listen and repeat the words in the box.
- Play the second part of the exercise. Students listen and repeat, and write down whether the sounds are short or long. (p. 55)

An analysis of the grammar and the possible significance of the bulleted sentences follows in the next chapter. However, it is worth commenting at this stage that bullet points are also used in all the Introductions for the traditional purpose of providing lists (for example, to enumerate the components of the course). As this style is reflected in the Unit Notes, this suggests that the teacher is expected to follow the list of presented stages in order to teach the activities. Examples of bullet point lists from each of the Introductions are given below:

World Class:

- Students Book
- Teachers Book (including assessment tasks)
- Cassettes (Class cassette and Activity Book cassette)
- Activity Book (p.4)

In *Open Doors* (page 1) under the heading 'Components of the course' bullet points indicate the sections in the Students Book.

The Students Book contains
- contents pages
- 12 units, each divided into four parts
- 6 optional projects
- 2 optional stories
- grammar summary

In *Hotline* bullet points are used to answer the question; 'What does *Hotline* Starter consist of?'

Student's Book. This contains

- ten main units, plus an introduction and three revision units
- pronunciation practice activities
- a vocabulary list

The description of the sequence and structure of the Guides in the next sections aims to show other similarities and differences in their overall textual structure.

3.4 Similarities and differences in the contents of the three Teacher's Guides

From a sample of three out of more than thirty available courses, it is not possible to identify consistent patterns across the text type. The following descriptions of the contents and structure of the three Guides are designed to reveal the similarities only between these three. Further, larger scale research may indicate that such similarities are shared by other Guides which may lead to the beginnings of the consensuality required to make Teacher's Guides a genre.

Only *Open Doors* has a contents page for the Teacher's book so the contents of the three Guides need to be ascertained by looking at the sections headings provided. Tables 3.1A, 3.1B and 3.1C indicate all the headings of the three Teacher's Guides. They are divided into three sections: the beginning, the middle and the end of the books. The numbers in brackets indicate the sequence these sections appear in each Guide.

Table 3.1A The headings given in the beginning of three Teacher's Guides

Feature/no of pages	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Total Pages	146*	125	162
Pages in Introduction	8 (1)	10.5 (1)	6.5 (3)
Teacher's Book Contents Page	No	No	1 (1)
Student's Book Contents Page	3 (2)	No	2 (2)

**this does not include the Student's Book pages.*

In terms of overall text structure and sequence, Figure 3.1A reveals that, in terms of structure, all the Guides have different page lengths. *Open Doors* has 16 pages more than *Hotline* and 37 pages more than *World Class*. In terms of sequence, all the Guides have an introduction in the beginning section of the book: in *Hotline* and *World Class*, the Guide opens with this, while in *Open Doors*, the Introduction comes after the Student's and Teacher's Book Contents Pages. The Student's Book Contents Page comes after the Introduction in *Hotline*. In terms of length, the Introductions are given a small percentage of the total number of pages, but, in the same way as the length of each Guide varies, so does the length of each Introduction.

The middle of each Guide is taken up with the Unit Notes. The following table indicates the total pages in each Guide which are dedicated to Unit Notes.

Table 3.1B The heading given in the middle of three Teacher's Guides

Title/Feature	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Units Notes	107 pages	96 pages	101 pages

In terms of sequence, the central part of each Guide is taken up with the Unit Notes and all other sections are placed at the end of the book. Table 3.1B shows that the largest portion of the Guides is devoted to the Unit notes: each Guide gives between two thirds and three quarters of the total pages to this section: *(Hotline*: 73%, *World Class*: a similar 75%, *Open Doors*: 62%). A varying amount material is placed at the end of each Guide, as shown in Table 3.1C.

Table 3.1C The headings given at the end of three Teacher's Guides

Feature	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Pronunciation Practice pages	5	0	0
Wordlist	6	0	6
Workbook answers	10	0	0
Tests and Answers pages	7	15	31
Students questionnaire	0	1	0
Learner Diary	0	1	0
Pairwork sheets	0	2	12
Projects	No	No	3.5
Total end pages	28	19	52

Table 3.1C shows that *Open Doors* has more than twice as many pages at the end of the book than the other two Guides: this is accounted for by the large number of pages given to Tests and Answer pages (31 pages: 19% of the total number of pages) and Pairwork sheets (12 pages: 6% of the total number of pages) – 43 pages in total, compared to 7 in *Hotline* and 17 in *World Class.* An increasing availability of photocopying facilities in secondary schools, at least in the markets targetted for sales of the two later Guides (*World Class* and *Open Doors*), may have influenced the decision to make the majority of the end matter pages photocopiable. Thirty four pages of the 52

end matter pages of *Open Doors* are photocopiable (65% of the total), a figure similar to the percentage (63%) in *World Class*, whereas *Hotline* offers significantly fewer with five photocopiable pages (17% of the total end matter). In terms of similarity of content, however, each Guide has only one or two 'unique' features which distinguish it from the others. These are shown in Table 3.2 below:

Table 3.2 Unique content features in the three Guides

Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Pronunciation pages	Student questionnaire	Projects
Workbook answers	Learner Diary	

It seems that a unique feature of *Open Doors* is the section on 'Projects': However, both *World Class* and *Hotline* have projects but they are included in the Unit Notes and are not given separate headings. *Open Doors*, therefore, offers no heading or section within its contents which is 'unique' except the Teacher's Book Contents Page. This means that 1.6% of the total Guide is different from the other two. *Hotline* has a separate section for Workbook answers but these are provided in the relevant units in the other two guides and are not given a separate section heading. The Pronunciation pages section, however, is unique to *Hotline* as neither of the other two Guides provides additional pronunciation practice pages elsewhere in their texts. This means that 3.6% of its overall text is different from the other two. *World Class* is the only Guide to provide a *Students Questionnaire Page* and a *Learner Diary Page* giving 2.3% of unique text to *World Class.*

This comparison shows that these three Guides share a similarity of structure and sequence which further research may indicate to be characteristic of the text type. This would not be surprising: text types are characterised by shared features of sequence and structure and any differences between the Guides are those of emphasis rather than of content and reflect changes in availability of technology (photocopiers, for example) and the pedagogic practice of language teaching. *The Student Questionnaire* and *The Learner Diary* in *World Class* reflect an increasing aim to make pedagogic approaches more learner centred in the early nineties, whereas the provision of five Pronunciation pages in the earlier Guide, *Hotline*, (omitted from the later two Guides) suggests that a greater emphasis on 'correct' pronunciation was part of the overall pedagogic theory and practice five years before *World Class* and *Open Doors* were published.

A closer look at the structure, sequence and content of the three Introductions attempts to show further patterns of similarities between the three Guides.

3.5 Features of the Teacher's Guides' Introductions

The Introductions establish the tone and approach not only of the Guide but also the whole package of materials including the Student's book and Workbook. Thus, the choices made here by the writer about what to include and exclude give a clear picture of how the text constructs a dialogue or relationship with the teacher and how that relationship will continue during the Unit Notes.

Section 3.4 showed that the Introductions constitute less than 9% of the complete Guides: a figure which perhaps supports Long et al's view that the Teacher's Guide is not the appropriate place for 'long explanations' of the rationale of the Student's book.

> We offer no recommendations on how to use these materials. It would be presumptuous of us to do so given the appalling ignorance about the... efficiency of classroom teaching...A guide to materials is not the place to indulge in long explanations of the rationale behind them..... we would like, therefore to acknowledge the thinking of ...*(then follows a list of nineteen well known applied linguists)* (quoted in Coleman, 1985, p. 88)

However, it is the structure, content and the organisation of the Introduction, in addition to its length, which indicate to what extent the three texts share features or offer unique ones. In order for this to be made clear it is necessary to list the headings of the three Introductions to indicate the 'signposts' which guide the reader through the texts.

All three introductions are divided into two parts: one of which, in line with the expectations of Coleman (1988) and Cunningsworth and Kusel (1991), indicates, through headings, that it is concerned mostly with providing a description of the package of materials (ie: Student's book, Work/Activity book and cassettes). In *World Class* these explanations are provided in the second part: in *Hotline* and *Open Doors* information on the components comes in the first part. The second part of all the Introductions provide section headings which appear to be explicitly referring to ELT pedagogic practice and methodology such as 'Skills' (Reading, Listening, Writing, Speaking) or 'Vocabulary'. Table 3.3 shows how much of the Introductions are overtly concerned with providing information about the accompanying package and how much with providing information about pedagogic practice.

Table 3.3 Headings which relate to the package of materials

	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Components of course 1 Students Book 2 Activity Book 3 Teacher's Book 4 cassettes % of total Introduction text	36 5.3%	117 11.6%	75 13.8%
Description/ Organisation of the course % of total Introduction text	6 0.8%	11 1%	19 3.3%
Description of unit/lesson structure % of total Introduction text	33 6.3%	33 3.3%	33 7.9%
Total % of introduction	12.3%	15.9%	25.1%

(Figures relate to the number of lines provided for that section)

The totals here show that only a minority of the headings indicate texts which relate to the accompanying package. This would suggest that, in Hotline, for example, 87% of the text relates to pedagogic practice and not to the accompanying package.

Table 3.4 shows which headings in the Introductions of each Guide relate to features of pedagogic practice.

Table 3.4 Introduction headings which refer to pedagogy

Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
8 Language work	3 Language input	5 Classroom Language
9 Reading	4 Recycling	6 Lesson Planning
10 Listening	5 Skills	7 Pairwork
11 Interaction	6 Learner training	8 Vocabulary teaching
12 Project	7 Fun	9 Skills work
14 Learning strategies	8 Variety	10 Project work
15 Pronunciation Practice	9 Testing	11 Correcting mistakes

16 Why do project work?	19 Warmers	
17 Motivation	20 Language Focus	
18 Relevance	21 Language Practice	
19 Education	22 Vocabulary	
20 Noise	23 Pronunciation	
21 Time	24 Speaking	
22 Use of L1	25 Listening	
23 Different levels	26 Songs	
24 Getting started	27 Story telling	
25 Evaluation	28 Reading	
	30 Writing	
	31 Learner training	
	33 Project work	
	34 Mixed ability/motivation	
	35 Evaluation	

The table shows that each of the Introductions offers a significant number of sections which are concerned with pedagogic practice. However, a closer look at the content of the texts below each heading reveals that the majority of the texts refer mainly to the accompanying materials, even though they are located in the section of the Introduction which is not overtly concerned with the description of the course. The first feature of interest is that of 'Language work'. Here the teacher may expect to find information about the current principles of grammar teaching in ELT and how these principles relate to the methodology of the course. Rather, the text concerns the organisation of the textbook. *Hotline* offers this text on grammar:

> The focus in Hotline is on enabling learners to use language, but an important element in this is helping learners to understand and feel comfortable with the basic structures of English. They will then feel more confident in language use. Each section of the unit has a language work element and in later units there is a separate language work section. (Hotline, p. vi)

Although this chapter is not concerned with analysing the contents of the texts but with establishing the overall structural features of the Guides as indicated by headings, this structural analysis also requires looking beyond the headings to clarify whether the texts match the expectations which the headings set up. Further examples of texts from the

Introductions are given below to show disparities between texts and headings. In the section called 'Interaction', where teachers may expect to find information about the principles of communication in the classroom, *Hotline* offers this text:

> The Interaction section provides opportunities for developing Speaking skills. Three types of activity are used:
> - role play in structured situation, eg at the shops;
> - drama role play, where students make their own plays;
> - interviews, eg with pop stars. (Hotline p. vi)

The section entitled 'Learning strategies', which sets up expectations of reading further information about, for example, memory or the psychology of learning or a definition of 'good ' and 'bad' learning strategies provides this information:

> One of the main features of Hotline is developing good learning strategies. When a useful learning strategy is first introduced, it is shown in a grey box (see, for example, page 7 Exercise 4). Encourage students to use these strategies as much as possible. (Hotline, p. vii)

Similarly, the majority of headings in *World Class* also precede texts which are concerned with the materials rather than with the pedagogic theory and practice of language teaching. The section on 'Language Input' offers a three paragraph text to teacher which describes how the units and activities are structured:

> Language Input
> Rather than beginning directly with the usual World Class balance between Language Focus and Skills lessons, the first part of this book has shorter Language focus spots in every lesson. The aim of this is to cover basic language areas which students may have seen at primary school in a systematic way. Language is presented in small manageable chunks and students are encouraged to think about rules of form and useage....
> The second half of the book has the format used in other books in this series: alternating Language focus and skills lessons..

The other two sections on language offered by *World Class*- 'Language focus' and 'Language practice' also offer further information, over fifteen paragraphs, about the organisation and structure of the Students Book:

> **Language Focus**
>
> **In Language Focus lessons there are activities that preview the target language and provide a realistic context for it. These activities are usually extensive reading and listening tasks, where students see or hear but do not need to understand the target structure. These activities are followed by Language focus boxes which deal with grammar items...**
>
> **Language Practice**
> **After each Language focus box there are both written and oral activities which give students practice in using the target structure. There is also further specific practice in the revision lesson of each module, with the Speaking section giving further oral practice and the Language revision section giving further written practice.**
> ***(World Class* p 6)**

The *Open Doors* section on Vocabulary teaching foregrounds information about the accompanying package.There is little explanation of the principles on which decisions about the presentation, choice and pedagogy of Vocabulary learning and teaching were based.

> **Teenage learners need to devote a considerable amount of attention to building their vocabulary from the outset. In each unit of Open Doors there is a page which specifically focuses on vocabulary building but new vocabulary is also introduced in other sections of the unit. Then new vocabulary that is introduced in parts a, b, c and d of each unit is listed in the teaching notes divided into active and passive vocabulary. The list of active vocabulary contains the most important words which the students need to focus on and learn to use; the list of passive vocabulary contains words which the students need to be able to recognise and understand but which are not expected to use actively at this stage.**
> **(*Open Doors*, p.5)**

These examples suggest that although, overtly, the two parts of all the Introductions are structured by their headings to raise the readers' expectations that they deal with two different areas of subject matter, that is, the organisation of the course and ELT pedagogy, the contents of the texts suggest that information about the accompanying package takes precedence. The result of this is that any references to ELT theory and practice are either very minimal or that the principles of ELT are implied in the texts rather than made explicit.

3.6 Conclusions

The comparative data shown in the first part of this chapter on the overall structures and sequences of the three Guides shows that these three follow a pattern which is flexible enough to allow for modifications to reflect changes in technology and innovations in ELT methodology. The main features of this pattern are the dominance of the Unit Notes as a total percentage of the Guide's length and their central position in the sequence of contents. This implies that the *raison d'etre* of the Teacher's Guide is to offer step by step guidance to the teacher for the staged management, as listed by the bullet points, of each task.

The presence of the Introduction in the first third of all the Guides suggests the need for the text to 'talk to' the teacher and sets up expectations of a relationship between the writer/ text) and the reader. Both the writer and the reader are members of the discourse community of language teachers and it could be expected that opportunities would be made in the Introductions for an explanation of the principles on which the course materials were based. This would serve to build up such a relationship. The headings in the Introduction suggest that this is the case but an examination of the texts suggests that the relationship, instead of drawing explicitly on a shared discourse, is chanelled through the medium of the accompanying package of materials. The headings which structure the Introductions lose their transparency and refract rather than reflect meaning. The result is that the text of the Introduction, by choosing to focus on the materials rather than on the shared discourse of the community, establishes a distance between it and the reader. The reader understands the overall text not by being part of

the shared references but by recognising the predictable sequence and structure of the whole book.

A more detailed textual analysis follows in Chapter Five which aims to show to what extent the features of language use in the texts reflect the norms of ELT discourse and how the relationship with the teacher is further constructed. Before doing this, however, we need to continue with a close textual analysis of the selected sections within the Guides. It is to that task that I now turn and which forms the substance of Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR

A TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF SELECTED SECTIONS OF THE THREE TEACHER'S GUIDES

4.1 Introduction

Teacher's Guides are concerned with three aspects of the classroom, namely, the teachers, the students and the tasks. The textual analyses of the texts in the Teacher's Guides which relate to the key features of ELT theory and practice, as outlined in Chapter One, show how the discourse of these sections portrays the writer's view of two of these three key aspects – the teacher and the students. This chapter is, therefore, concerned with the *'how'* of the contents of the texts and attempts to answer the question 'How does the language of the Teacher's Guides Introductions and Unit Notes portray the teacher and the students in the classroom event?' This chapter continues the description of the three Introductions and Unit notes and is divided into three sections. Working from the modified model presented in Chapter 2, the first section provides a textual analysis of the Introductory sections which present Grammar. The second section provides a transitivity analysis of the verbs used in the Unit Notes given for nine Grammar exercises. The third section provides a textual analysis of the section of two

Introductions which present Vocabulary and a transitivity analysis of the verbs used in the Unit Notes given for six vocabulary exercises. The first part of this chapter looks at the three Introductory sections which are concerned with Grammar and the second part looks at nine examples of unit Notes, three from each of the Guides. The framework for the analysis is provided by the questions, taken from Fairclough's 1989 model, which are shown in figure 4.1 below. The questions are taken from Figure 2.6 in Chapter two.

Figure 4.1 Four routes to textual analysis

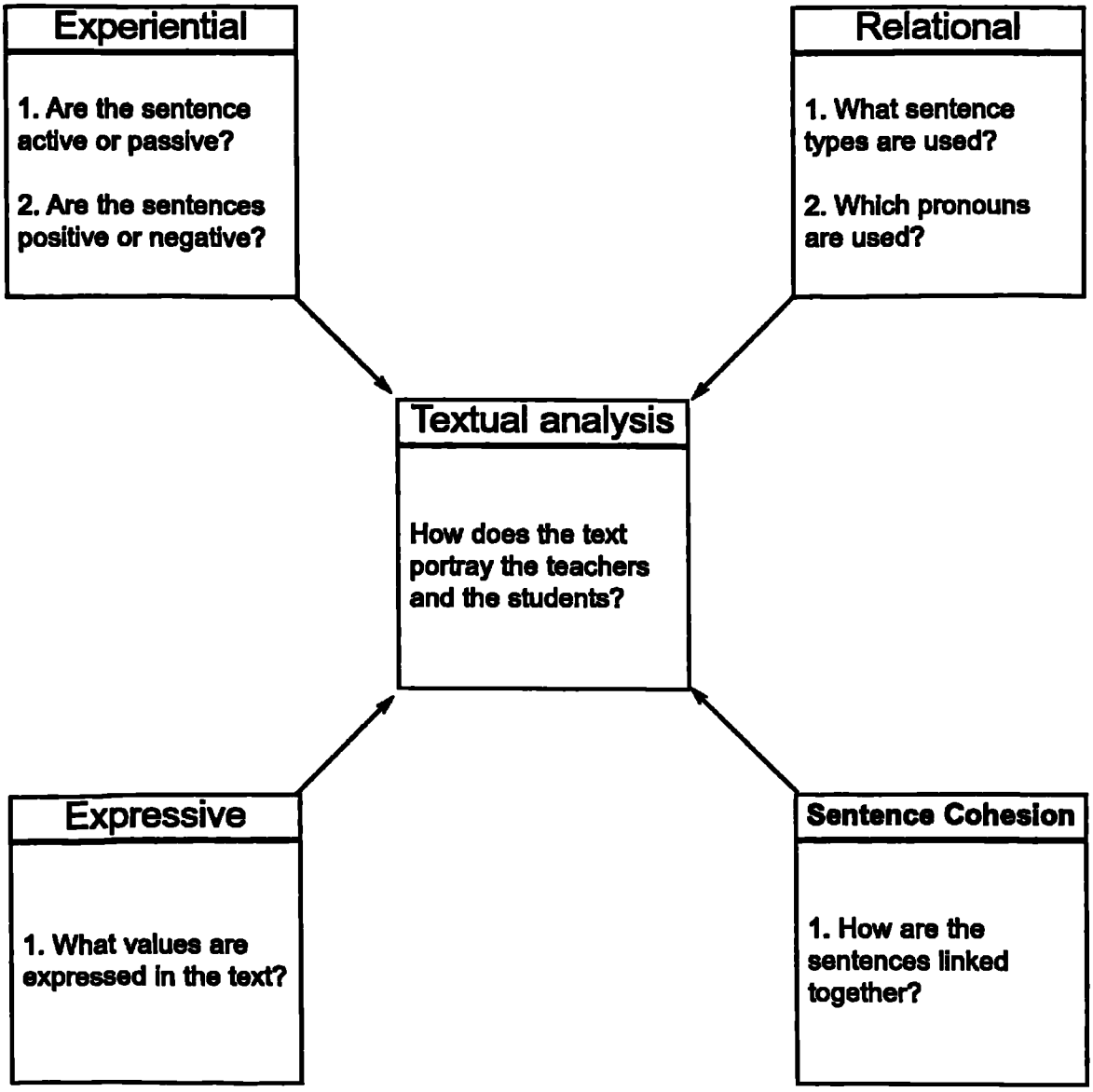


Figure 4.1 shows four discrete paths towards the textual analysis as ways of providing answers to the question 'How does the text portray the teacher and the students?' However, during the examination of the grammar, the paths will occasionally cross so that more than one aspect of the sentence can be included in the analysis at the same time. The line of analysis is not concerned with the content of the texts, as this is provided in the intertextual analysis in Chapter 5, but instead, looks at what the texts say about the teacher, the students and, by extension, the teaching event. The complete Introduction texts which are concerned with a description of Grammar in the course book are provided in Appendix 2. The texts have been separated into individual sentences, numbered for ease of reference. When reference is made in the body of the study to individual numbered sentence, the number is given and the titles of the Guides are abbreviated to HL (*Hotline*), WC (*World Class*) and OD (*Open Doors*).

4.2 The view of the teacher and the students through an analysis of the grammar of the three Introductory sections on Grammar

For the Introduction texts on Grammar, the starting point is an analysis of the experiential values; that is, those which show how the text portrays a view of the world and the participants in the text. The choice of grammar used by the writer therefore has a significant impact on how both the reader and the writer perceive their role and status and how the reader is involved in the writer's world view. An analysis of the grammar will show which types of process dominate the discourse as reflected by the choice of sentence construction. The first question in figure 4.1 requires an examination of the experiential nature of the sentences, in particular whether the text uses positive or negative sentences and the passive or active voice.

The agreement between grammarians seems to be that the passive voice is associated with an impersonal style (usually in writing) where the question of the identity of the agent is unimportant and often irrelevant (Leech and Svartvik, 1975) or when the agent is not known, or when the agent may be 'people in general' or is obvious, or needs to be concealed. (Huddleston, 1988. Hewings: 1999). One reason for choosing the passive, therefore, is that it enables the writer to omit what would have to be included in the active construction. Nevertheless, in passive sentences where the agent is missing, it has to be recoverable from an element in a close superordinate clause in order to avoid ambiguity or confusion.

An examination of the use of active and passive constructions in the texts will show how to what extent the two participants -the students, and the teacher are shown to be unimportant, irrelevant, unknown or concealed and whether the use of the passive leads to ambiguity or confusion. Agentless passive constructions often serve to make both causality and responsibility unclear and the analysis below reveals that the absence of an agent in some of the passive sentences in the three texts leads to ambiguity about who is responsible for the action and who and what causes the action to happen.

The first aim is to show how the texts portray the activities, role and function of the students, in other words, how their 'subject position' is constructed. In total, there are 24 sentences in the three texts of which 5 use the passive voice:

HL: 10 Thirdly, the students are encouraged to compare the English structure to that in their own language.

WC :3 These activities are followed by Language Focus boxes which deal either with grammar items or language functions presenting difficulties of form or usage.

WC: 4 As far as possible, students are asked to work out the rules themselves based on examples taken from the previous presentation text
WC:10 Students are encouraged to be aware of some basic grammatical terminology, so that they can relate English grammar to their own language and think about grammatical problems.

OD :2 Students are often asked to work out a simple grammar rule for themselves.

In four out of the five sentences the students are the object of the sentence and are either 'encouraged' (HL sentence 10 and WC sentence 10) or 'asked' (WC sentence 4 and O D sentence 2). In all four sentences there is no named agent so it is unclear who is doing the asking and encouraging. Both 'asking' and 'encouraging' are generally considered to be human activities so it may at first be assumed that it is the teacher who is encouraging the students to compare the English structure to that in their own language (HL) or to be aware of some basic grammatical terminology (WC). However, the preceding sentences suggest that the students perform these tasks as a result of the activities provided in the course book, through the 'Buildup' activities and substitution tables in *Hotline* and the Language Focus Boxes in *World Class*.

Similarly, the two agentless sentences which use 'ask' as the verb (WC 4 and OD 2) are also ambiguous: it is not clear who is asking the students to work out the grammar rule. As the *World Class* text suggests that students refer to the presentation text provided in the course book it is not likely that the person who is doing the asking is the teacher: the assumption must be, therefore, that it is the person who provided the presentation text, the Build Up activities and substitution tables, that is, the writer of the activities.

However, the writer of the materials, who is not referred to directly by the use of a personal pronoun in any of the three texts, is concealed, shielded from view, through the use of the agentless passive construction and the focus of attention is realigned to the tasks and materials themselves. It could be argued that this grammatical structure not only makes the writer invisible thus excluding him from participating in the text, but also removes responsibility from the writer for what happens to the students as they work through the tasks and participate in the teaching event. This notion of exclusion plays a key role in Critical Discourse Analysis because the choice of who or what is excluded from the discourse gives clues as to where the text places emphasis and what it chooses to conceal (van Leeuwen, 1996, p 38). This exclusion may background the actions of one set of participants while foregrounding those of others, or it may suppress their actions completely so that they become invisible. In these texts, therefore, the writer and his actions have been suppressed and those of the students, as objects of the passive structures, are backgrounded as they are placed in a passive or submissive role. This is a view supported by the only negative sentence in the three texts:

> WC: 2 These activities are usually extensive reading and listening tasks, where students see or hear but do not need to understand the target structure.

Other structures, which use a noun instead of a subject+ verb structure, serve to conceal, or background, the students even further. Sentence 5 of *World Class* uses 'completion' :

> WC :5 ...the most common, which concentrates on form, is the completion of substitution tables.

The use of an active construction would place the students centre stage, for example:
... *substitution tables, which the students complete, are the most common.*

Sentence 8 of *World Class* 'This establishes meaning...' suggests that the meaning is made for the students , but a subject+verb construction would make the function of the task and the role of the students clearer, for example:

These matching activities help the students understand the meaning of the new structure.

In order to establish the relational aspect of the texts answers are sought for the two questions ' What sentence types are used?' and 'Which pronouns are used?'. The use of the present simple tense throughout the texts (all but two of the 24 sentences use the present simple: HL 2 and 11) increases the ambiguity of the students' position. The primary purpose of the present tense is to locate the situation in the present time of the utterance, to describe something which is generally true, particularly when the situation is static, for example 'He teaches at the University'. For dynamic, changing, temporary situations the continuous is used ('He is teaching at the University'). The use of the present simple for dynamic situations is generally restricted to commentaries, cookery demonstrations and some kinds of narratives (Huddleston, 1988, p70). Therefore, the present simple is a tense usually associated with the statement of factual information: this is appropriate when giving information about the materials: for example,

> HL 3 Each section of the unit has a Language work element and in the later units there is a separate Language work section.
>
> WC1 In the Language Focus lessons, there are activities which preview the target language , and provide an realistic context for it.
>
> OD1 Part b aims to consolidate students' grammatical knowledge with explanations and a thorough practice of the new structures introduced in the unit

However, the use of the present simple in reference to the students' activities cannot be interpreted as providing factual information or describing something which is generally

true because the circumstances in which students and teachers may work in the classrooms are various and unpredictable. It cannot, equally, be considered a commentary, as a commentator needs o present at the same time as the activity. Instead, the Teacher's Guide Unit Notes appear to have created their own use of the present simple. Sentences such as the following have, at first glance, the appearance of an existing factual truth such as 'Snow melts' or 'Water boils at 100 C':

> HL 7 First the students find and complete examples of the structure in the Victoria Road story or some other section of the unit.
>
> HL 8 Secondly, in the Build Up activities students work out the grammar rule for themselves.
>
> HL 9 They complete substitution tables and grammar rules.

However, it is probably equally true that all students may not study/ find/ complete/ work out the grammar rules. This use of the present tense cannot be interpreted as being descriptive of what is happening because the utterance is being made a long time before the action takes place. Rather, the use of the present simple in these sentences suggests a an imperative – a command or a requirement or expectation that certain events will take place irrespective of the teacher, the students or the classroom situation. It is as if the present simple of these verbs in this context are used as deontic modals which oblige or permit students to perform certain actions.

This sense of command is reinforced by the use of 'have to' in connection with the students in sentence 6 of *World Class.*

> WC:6 Students have to complete tables which include the target structure, using examples of language from the previous text.

The use of 'will' in the first sentence of *Hotline* reinforces this strong sense of certainty and expectation:

HL:1 They will then feel more comfortable in language use.

There are only two examples of a modal auxiliary in the 24 sentences (WC:10 and OD:3) and both use 'can' in the sense of 'ability':

OD:3 The Study Skills section shows students how to develop language learning techniques that they can use in class....

WC 10 ... so that they can relate English grammar to their own language and think about grammatical problems.

None of the other sentences in the three texts use a modal form or suggest modality by the use of other grammatical or semantic devices such as the use of 'possibly' or 'likely' or the use of the interrogative, imperative or the past tense. Modals are often used when the writer is not certain about what is likely to happen. Given that the writer cannot be certain about how the students will react to the tasks or how the teacher will teach, the absence of an expression of uncertainty is surprising and suggests that the actions of the students and the teacher are predictable and fixed.

In summary, the text suggests that the students actions are directed through the presentation of the tasks rather than through a dialogue with the teacher or with through responsible autonomy. The interpretation stage of the analysis in Chapter 5 uncovers further to what extent this reflects this aims of the course.

The second participant in the classroom is the teacher: her place and function as portrayed by the grammar of the texts is even more backgrounded than that of the students. There is no direct or indirect mention of the teacher or her activities in any of the 24 sentences. The result of this absence of personal recognition is that her actions and responsibilities are not only refracted by the text but that she is made invisible.

Nevertheless, the text is designed to speak to the teacher (she is, after all, its only audience) so, although she is not mentioned directly through the use of pronouns, the text, through other means, will need to construct a relationship with her. These relational values are most clearly expressed by the choice of mode of sentence, that is, through the imperative, declarative or grammatical question form.

The majority of sentences in the three texts are declarative which makes the subject position of the writer that of a giver of information and the reader's position that of the receiver. In a text designed to explain the organisation of a set of materials it is to be expected that the teacher will want to receive information, so this subject position is appropriate for some sections of the text. However, in other cases, it is likely that she may also want to have some of the information explained. Information in an extended piece of text such as this is usually followed by an explanation or reason and provision of a rationale is one way of constructing a relationship with the reader of the text. Reasons are usually provided by conjunctions such as 'because' or 'so that' or 'in order to'. There is one example of these conjunctions in the 24 sentences:

> **OD 3 The Study Skills section shows students how to develop language learning techniques that they can use in class and at home in order to become more independent in their learning.**

The use of the anaphoric personal pronoun 'they' combined with the connector 'then' can be considered as a reason in sentences 1 and 2 of *Hotline:*

> **HL 1 The focus in Hotline is on enabling learners to use language, but an important element in this is helping learners to understand and feel comfortable with the basic structures of English.**
>
> **HL 2 They will then feel more comfortable in language use**

However, the explanation that learning the basic structures of English is to make them feel 'more comfortable' with language use is probably redundant within the context of a language course. Similarly, the explanation that matching establishes meaning, between sentences 7 and 8 in the *World Class* text as indicated by the anaphoric 'this' at the beginning of sentence 8, is not unexpected in a grammar lesson. The lack of explanations combined with an absence of the mention of the teacher by name suggests that the writer of the text is an invisible authority and the students and teachers as non-individualised composites.

4. 3 The roles of the teacher and the students as portrayed in the grammar of the Unit Notes for the three Grammar exercises

In order to see whether the Unit Notes on grammar position the teacher and students differently from the Introduction, the following section presents a similar textual analysis of nine Unit Notes, three tasks taken from each of the three Guides. The Unit Notes have been chosen from the beginning, middle and end of each Guide and all provide guidance on the same grammatical structure. The first three deal with the presentation of the simple present, the second with the presentation of the present continuous and the third with the presentation of the past simple.

The Unit Notes are reproduced in full in Appendix 3. Tables 4.1A, 4.1B and 4.1C show where the units are taken from and which vocabulary area is being taught at the same time.

Table 4.1A Unit Notes on the presentation of the present simple 'be'.

Title	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Unit number	1-2	1-2	1-2
Grammar	To be	To be	To be
Vocabulary	Numbers. Shopping	Families	Days, months

Table 4.1B Unit Notes on the presentation of the present continuous.

Title	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Unit Number	9	19	7
Grammar	Present continuous	Present continuous	Present continuous
Vocabulary	Clothes	Festivals	Parts of the body

Table 4.1C Unit Notes on the presentation of the Past simple 'be'.

Title	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Unit	11	24	11
Grammar	Past simple – to be	Past simple – to be	Past simple- to be
Vocabulary	Loch Ness	Furniture	Souvenirs

There are 24 sentences in the first set of Notes, 72 in the second set and 40 in the third set (136 sentences in total). Unlike the Introduction texts, there is only one example of the passive construction:

> **WC2 (end) Point out that though the above answer can be deduced from the examples in the boxes, there is an exception – the second person singular takes were.**

This may suggest that the students and teacher are guided to play a much more active and unambiguous role. However, the Unit Notes are marked by the use of the imperative: in the first three texts, fifteen out of twenty four sentences use the

imperative to address the teacher directly, in the second three texts, sixty three out of the seventy two sentences uses the imperative, and in the last three texts, just over half, 21 out of 42 sentences uses the imperative. In total, 72% of the Unit Note sentences in this batch use the imperative to address the teacher. Such a large proportion, combined with the use of the bullet points shown in the texts and described in Chapter 1, suggests that the writer, to whom no reference is made by the use of the singular or plural personal pronoun, expects that the lesson will unfold , according to the stages of a process, if the teacher acts in accordance with the instructions.

This 'procedure' as it is named in *Hotline* sentence 2 (middle) is reinforced by the use of 'then' ('Students then copy the boxes in their notebooks': WC:3 (beginning; OD 16 (end)) and 'When it is complete (HL:3 (beginning). As the teacher is not addressed with the use of the personal pronoun (except in HL:1 : Middle) or any other grammatical construction or semantic device, the portrayal by the texts of her role as one who responds to the stages of commands reflects the findings in the literature of the 'deskilling' of teachers (Bowles and Gintis, 1976. Apple, 1979/1985. Auerbach and Burgess, 1985). and arguments which concern the use of a 'method' in language teaching (Stern in Pennycook, 1994).

The absence of auxiliary modals such as 'might', 'may' or lexical words and phrases which suggest possibility further reinforces the sense of author control. The only examples of modal auxiliaries are 'can' used in the following five sentences of which

two express deontic modality (permission or obligation) and two are epistemic modals (possibility).

> (HL: Middle:1) You can start immediately with the Victoria Road story on page 64 or you can pre-teach the present continuous first. (permission: deontic modal)
> (OD: Middle: 12) They can produce sentences orally before writing their answers in their notebooks. (permission: deontic modal)
> (OD:end:16) Students could write sentences about their partner's diaries. (permission: deontic modal)
> (WC: beginning: 5) With a monolingual class you can check all students agree. (possibility: epistemic modal)
> (OD: end:11) Ask students to ... fill it in if they can. (possibility: epistemic modal)

Thus, the texts portray the activities of the teacher through the prism of the linear development of the Student's Book exercises and are further managed, or controlled by the scripted lines which are suggested in the texts through which the teacher is positioned as a mouthpiece for the writer. All three Guides proscribe lines for the teacher to utter (*Hotline* (middle) offers 12 such lines; *Hotline* (end) one line, *World Class* (middle) 2 lines: *Open Doors* (end) one line). For example;

> HL 6 Say *I'm opening the door.*
>
> HL 9 Ask *What am I doing?*
>
> HL 13 Say *Read your book.*

A portrayal of the position and processes of the students and teachers in the Unit Notes texts is best represented through a transitivity model which specifies different types of processes which include types of doing, saying, sensing, being, behaving and existing. (Halliday, 1985) Representations can provide participants, or social actors, with active or passive roles. In order to establish what the nine texts guide the teachers and students to do, a transitivity analysis of the verbs will reveal consistency of action and process and demonstrate the subject positions of both participants. Halliday's grammar proposes six

different processes or kinds of transitivity and, in order to establish who is performing which kinds of actions in the text, it is necessary to analyse all the verbs in a piece of text and then relate them to one of the six processes (Janks, 1997). The number of actions for both teacher and students as revealed by the verbs in text 1 is limited: four different actions by students in *Open Doors* and *World Class*, and six in *Hotline*. For teachers, the number of different actions is similar, four in *Hotline* and *World Class* and seven in *Open Doors*. Over the three texts, the total number of different actions is 12 for the teachers and 13 for the students. However, the students and the teachers are involved in different processes: tables 4.2A and 4.2B below show the differences between their process participation in the classroom event:

Table 4.2A Transitivity analysis: Teacher participation – Grammar activities

Material processes	*Verbal processes*	*Mental processes*	*Relational processes*	*Behavioural processes*	*Existential processes*
1 Make sure	1 Ask	1 Choose			
2 Divide	2 Elicit	2 Look at			
3 Copy	3 Explain	3 Accept			
4 Check	4 Read out				
5 Practise	5 Say				
6 Do	6 Repeat				
7 Teach	7 Monitor				
8 Start	8 Tell				
9 Pre-teach	9 Point out				
10 Use					
11 Spend					
12 Introduce					
13 Open					
14 Play cassette					
15 Go through					
16 Go round					
17 Write					
18 Give					
19 Mime					
20 Demonstrate					

Table 4.2B Transitivity analysis :Student participation Grammar activities

Material processes	*Verbal processes*	*Mental processes*	*Relational processes*	*Behavioural processes*	*Existential processes*
1 Complete	1 Quote	1 Understand			
2 Use	2 Say	2 Look at			
3 Come out	3 Read out	3 Work out			
4 Make	4 Ask	4 Listen			
5 Copy	5 Answer	5 Guess			
6 Translate	6 Call out	6 Compare			
7 Write	7 Repeat				
8 Read					
9 Put					
10 Close books					
11Do					
12 Reverse roles					
13 Find examples					
14 Practise					
15 Fill in					
16 Work in pairs					

The transitivity tables show that the verbs in the nine texts are not concerned with behavioural processes such as breathing and sleeping, with existential processes or with relational processes as evidenced by different types of being or having. Mental processes comprise six activities for students over the three texts (understanding, working out (grammar rules), comparing (answers), looking (at a chart or picture), listening (to the cassette) and guessing). For teachers, this figure is half: teachers choose (students), accept (answers) and look at pictures and charts in the book. The portrayal of the mental processes of the teachers while engaged in the teaching of three key grammar areas reflects the portrayal of her role as suggested by the use of the imperative and the absence of pronoun signification, that is, her role is that of a manager of the tasks as they are set out rather than one of a reflective practitioner.

The tables show that, in terms of the process of 'saying', students do seven different activities and the teachers do eight; of which four are the same (say, read out loud, repeat, ask) but it is perhaps significant that the teacher is not portrayed as one who has the role of answering and the students are not portrayed as having a role of telling their classmates or the teacher an idea or some information, for example. Three of the students' verbal processes involve saying the words of others (repeat, read out, quote). Three out of the six mental processes for the students involve personal and active cognition (understand, work out and compare), the others – guess, listen to and look at – do not necessarily guarantee or involve active mental involvement. Neither students nor teachers are noticeably asked to think, evaluate, imagine or create. Seven out of the sixteen material processes involve the students in physical movement which require no creativity – use, come out, copy, put, close books, reverse roles, work in pairs.

The students' main area of process centres around types of doing: in all three activities – beginning, middle and end – the students do a wider variety of activities than the teacher. Overall, students do sixteen different kinds of activity and the teachers twenty. It is significant that the types of doing by both teacher and students vary so little both across the three Teacher's Guides and also from the beginning of the school year to the end. Obviously, this is not merely a function of the Teacher's notes but also of the sequencing of the tasks and the tasks themselves which are provided for use in the Student's Book. Therefore, the roles of both participants remain fixed throughout the year irrespective of the task they are performing.

4.4 The roles of the teacher and students as portrayed in the grammar of the Introduction texts on Vocabulary

It is significant that, whereas *Open Doors* and *World Class* include sections in their Introduction on 'vocabulary', *Hotline* does not, as it was not until the mid 1990s that the revived interest in the importance of vocabulary for language learning had begun to make an impact in textbooks (Harmer, 1991. Nunan, 1996). The fact that the later two courses include sections on vocabulary suggests that course books do reflect some aspects of current debate. Therefore, the first part of the following section can refer only to the Introductions of *Open Doors* and *World Class* but the second section, the Unit Notes, draws from all three Guides. The Vocabulary Introduction texts are reproduced in Appendix 4 and each sentence is numbered for ease of reference.

Open Doors devotes eleven sentences to a section called *Vocabulary Teaching* and *World Class* nineteeen. In both texts, just under half the sentences use the passive voice: five out of eleven in the *Open Doors* text (sentences 2, 3, 4, 6, 10) use the passive and in *World Class*, eight sentences out of 19 (sentences 1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 10, 16, 18) and, of these, nine sentences are agentless passives which leave the identitity of the agent ambiguous or concealed. In sentence 8 of *World Class*, for example, it is not clear who is encouraging the students. It could be the teacher or the materials, although the previous phrase, 'as the book progresses', suggests that it is the materials who do the encouraging.

> WC 8: As the book progresses, students are encouraged to use the mini-dictionary to look up important new words in reading activities.

The dynamic suggested by the verb 'encourage' would rarely be found in an exercise: generally, it is people who encourage others. This implies that either it is the teacher who should encourage the students to use the mini-dictionary or that the concealed writer is doing the encouraging. If it were the teacher who was encouraging the students, the SVO pattern, as used in sentence 11 of the *World Class* text ('You can encourage this in various ways') would have cleared up the ambiguity ('You can encourage the students to use the mini dictionary.')

Although there is one reference to the authors as 'we' in *Open Doors* sentence 9, as in the Introductory sections on Grammar, the writer is not an obvious and overt agent in either text. Nevertheless, the following sentences suggest that it is the writer who is introducing and suggesting, (generally considered to be human activities) rather than the materials themselves.

> **WC 6 As well as this presentation of key lexis, learners are introduced to the basic idea throughout World Class that they are the ones who have to decide which words are important, depending on their own interests and lifestyles.**
>
> **WC 1 In this level of World Class, vocabulary is more consciously presented than at higher levels.**
>
> **WC2 To be able to do activities as beginners, students often need language presented or reviewed beforehand.**
>
> **WC 10 Useful vocabulary is suggested where relevant in the Teacher's book.**
>
> **OD :3 The new vocabulary that is introduced.in parts a, b,c and d of each unit is listed in the vocabulary notes, divided into active and passive vocabulary.**

The use of the passive constructions in these examples serve to remove the writer/s from the actions and the methodological decisions which lie behind them and, at the same time, to marginalise the students and the teacher. In *World Class* sentences 1, 2 and 10 the agentless passive constructions serve to make the recipient of the presentations and

suggestions unclear: it could be both the teacher and the students, or perhaps only the teacher or perhaps the students. The result is that the function of the teacher and students becomes obfuscated: if it is not clear who or what is causing the pedagogic action in the classroom then it follows that the responsibility for these actions is equally confused. For example, the phrase ' ... students often need language presented or reviewed beforehand...' in Sentence 2 may refer back to sentence 1 where the materials are clearly presenting the vocabulary, or it may suggest that it is the teacher who needs to do the presenting or reviewing. Responsibility is better achieved with the use of an active construction, for example:

You may need to present or review language before doing some activities with beginners.

Agent is also ambiguous in Sentence 16 in *World Class* which includes the phrase 'it should be seen as a guide rather than a vocabulary list'. It is unclear, but important, here whether this view of the vocabulary section in the Activity Book refers to the teacher or the students, or perhaps both. Again, clarity could have been provided with the use of an active construction:

(You and) The students can use the vocabulary section as a guide...

The end of *Open Doors* sentence 4 ' but are not expected to use actively at this stage' does not make clear whether it is the materials or the teacher, or perhaps even the students themselves, who is not expecting the students to use the new words. The invisibility of the agents and the consequent absence of responsibility, contrasts with the message which runs through both texts - that it is the students who need to take

responsibility for their vocabulary learning. The responsibility is made clear in *Open Doors* sentences 1 and 8 :

> **OD [1] Teenage learners need to devote a considerable amount of attention to building their vocabulary...**
>
> **OD [8] It is important for students to organise their vocabulary learning..**

And in sentences 6 and 11 of *World Class*:

> **WC [6] ...they are the ones who have to decide which words are important...**
>
> **WC [11] ... it is important for students to be in the habit of selecting and storing important words themselves**

Nevertheless, in *Open Doors* sentence 10 ,it is not clear who will keep the records of new vocabulary until the pronoun 'they' is supplied at the end of the sentence. The use of an active construction would have made the responsible agent clear:

Students will be able to keep records of the new vocabulary together, separate from other exercises and notes ...

Similarly, students and their actions are made invisible by the string of passives in sentence 18 of *World Class*:

> **WC 18 Your assessment should take into account the organisation of the lexis, how easy it is to find your way around the book, what information is given, whether examples provide a context for words and how much is included.**

References to students are not always positive: for example, one sentence in each of the texts is negative and both refer to students:

> **OD 10 In this way, records of the new vocabulary will be kept together, and not become confused with all the exercises and other notes that they make in their ordinary notebooks.**
>
> **WC 15 The Revision lesson then gives students an opportunity to re-cap on new lexis and to check that they have not left out any important new words.**

Both sentences present a view of students as being needy or careless: a position of weakness which is reinforced by the six mentions of 'need' in the texts which refer to the students. *Open Doors* uses 'need' in three sentences:

> OD 1 Teenage learners need to devote a considerable amount of attention at to building their vocabulary from the outset.
>
> OD 4 The list of active vocabulary contains the most important words which the students need to focus on and learn to use: the list of passive vocabulary contains words which students need to be able to recognise and understand but are not expected to use actively at this stage.
>
> OD 6 the new words are recorded on cassette and students may need to listen and repeat several times in order to memorise the words and learn the correct pronunciation.

World Class uses 'need' in two sentences:

> WC2 To be able to do activities as beginners, students often need language presented or reviewed beforehand.
>
> WC 16 The useful vocabulary section in the Activity Book gives suggestions as to which words need to be written down , but it should be seen as a guide rather than a vocabulary list.

This repeated use of the strong verb 'need' suggests a view of students which is not altogether positive.

In summary, the grammar of the text, with its preponderance of passive constructions, does not serve to position the students centre-stage in the classroom event. This backgrounded position is reinforced by the absence of verbs which may be considered to fall within the lexical set 'pedagogy' and which may be used to describe what learners could be expected to do in the classroom. Only one sentence uses the verb 'help' in relation to students, and other verbs such as 'learn', 'understand' , 'develop', 'progress', 'improve' , 'enjoy' or 'teach', 'discuss' or 'explain' are absent. Further, the absence of structures which can be used to express epistemic modality which would show that the

writer understands that students may have individual ways of learning strengthens the image of the students in the text as being a 'composite model' (Luke: 1996).

The texts construct two positions for the teacher: first, because it is a text to be read, she is constructed as a reader who responds to the overall cohesion and structure of the sentences as a piece of connected discourse and thereby, creates a relationship with the text. Second, because the text describes what is to happen in the classroom and her role and function in that event, it also positions her as a teacher. In terms of the text's construction of the relationship with the teacher as a reader, four of the thirty sentences in the texts refer directly to the teacher with the use of the personal pronoun 'you' :

> **WC12 You can encourage this in various ways.**
>
> **WC13 Firstly, when the students finish a task before the others, you can ask them whether they have stored the all the important new lexis.**
>
> **WC14 Also, you can assign short periods during or at the end of classes to enable students to do this.**
>
> **OD 7 After listening and repeating, you may like to practise further with individual students.**

One sentence uses the possessive pronoun 'your':

> **WC 18 Your assessment should take into account the organisation of the lexis, how easy it is to find you way around the book, what information is given, whether examples provide a context for words and how much is included.**

These five references suggest that the text is constructing the teacher in a position of individuality. However, all the references are followed by a modal :'can' and 'may', which suggests that, instead of viewing the teacher as an independent professional, it views her as an uncertain practitioner who requires permission or advice on how to practise, assign, ask or encourage. It is possible that the 'may' in sentence 7 of *Open Doors* is suggesting an option or choice but the provision of the two dialogues immediately following implies that there is a model which should be imitated. Similarly,

the 'can' which follows the 'you' in *World Class* sentence 12 advises the teacher to take two lines of action but does not suggest that there may be other options which she could put into place herself. The relational modality as expressed by the four modals reinforces the position, shown also in the Grammar Introduction texts, that the writer gives for the teacher to act in particular ways thereby precluding the teacher from seeing herself as an equal within the shared ELT discourse community.

This view of the teacher as a recipient of advice is strengthened by the use of the phrase 'it is important' in two sentences which are addressed to her in the *World Class* text:

> **WC3 It is important to make sure that learners are aware of key lexical items such as colours or numbers.**
>
> **WC 17 Finally, it is important to monitor Vocabulary books, taking them in from time to time and giving students a mark.**

The absence of reasons in the sentences for these proscribed actions reinforces the position of authority taken by the text. The predominance of simple, declarative sentences, as in the Grammar texts, constructs a discourse which has few of the cohesive devices found in an explanatory text; for example, there are no instances of 'because', 'so that' or 'in order to'. *Open Doors* sentence 10 does provide a reason why the students are advised to keep a vocabulary notebook but the use of 'will' in the sentence suggests a command rather than a rationale.

> **OD 10 In this way, records of the new vocabulary will be kept together, and not become confused with all the exercises and other notes that they make in their ordinary notebooks.**

Each text opens with strong statements:

> **OD1 Teenage learners need to devote a considerable amount of attention to building their vocabulary from the outset.**
>
> **WC 1 In this level of World Class vocabulary is more consciously presented than at higher levels.**

The absence of reason in these sentences discourages the reader from asking questions of the text because the implication is that the reasons should be obvious.

In terms of text cohesion, a lack of clarity is further compounded by the hazy use of the anaphoric references which are designed to create cohesion and clarity in a text. The texts use 'this' and 'these', but it is not always clear to which subject they are referring. For example, *World Class* sentence 4 starts with the phrase 'Many of these activities', but the previous sentence contains no reference to activities and neither does sentence 5 which follows. The activities to which the 'these;' refers is unclear and relies on the reader to assume what is meant by the reference. *World Class* sentence 5 begins with the phrase ' In other lessons' which suggests that in one of the previous sentences the word 'some' was used, probably with the noun 'lessons'. However, neither of these words appears before sentence 5 leaving the reader to assume to which lessons or activities the invisible word 'some' is making reference. These ambiguous references not only serve to make the text opaque to the reader but also make unclear the pedagogy and the role of the teacher in its practice. For the non-native speaker reader this lack of cohesive clarity is likely to affect adversely her response to the text.

The declarative nature of the sentences combined with the predominance of the passive constructions places the teacher, both as a reader and as a practitioner, in an unclear role in which her role and her functions are minimised. The following analysis of the Unit Notes for six Vocabulary exercises is designed to show whether the shadowy position in which she is placed by the Introduction is spotlighted during the classroom tasks.

An analysis of the Unit Notes for six Vocabulary exercises follows: these notes are provided to the lexical areas 'Families' and 'places'. Only two sets of exercises have been chosen for this analysis. There are two reasons for this. The first is that, although there is a consensually agreed grammar syllabus (Harmer, 1991), with the result that the sequence of grammatical structures presented in the three course books is very similar, the same is not true of the lexis which, generally, is very unsystematic in its presentation to students. The topic areas used to exemplify the grammar structures vary considerably across the three courses so that there are very few lexical areas which 'match'. Secondly, although the Introduction to *World Class* states that vocabulary is more consciously presented in this level than in higher levels, an examination of the Students Book and Teacher's Guide notes reveals that most vocabulary work is done in the Activity Book for which there are minimal Unit Notes (World Class, p7). For these reasons the two lexical areas have been chosen to 'match', in that they are both teaching the same lexical area through the Student's book tasks. The full teaching notes for both sets of Unit Notes are given, with sentences numbered, in Appendix 5.

Table 4.3 Unit Notes: lexical area – families

Title	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Unit number	3	1-2	3
Grammar	Has/have got	To be	Possessive adjectives
Vocabulary	Families	Families	Families

Table 4.3B Unit Notes : lexical area – places

Title	Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
Unit	5	24	5c
Grammar	There is/there are	Was/wasn't were/weren't	Can
Vocabulary	Places	Places	Places

It is noticeable that, out of a total of sixty four, *World Class* has four sentences devoted to guiding the teacher through the presentation of these two, fairly key, lexical areas, which suggests that the approach to teaching vocabulary has a different focus from those used in the other two course books. *Hotline* has a total of thirty one sentences for the two sets of exercises and *Open Doors* twenty eight. The use of imperatives, the absence of personal pronouns to address the teacher and the 'commanding' use of the present simple for the actions of the students follow the same pattern as the Unit Notes for the Grammar exercises and need not be commented on further here. What is of interest to note is that the pattern of the discourse remains the same, whether the Unit Notes are guiding the teacher at the beginning of the school year, when she may be unfamiliar with the course materials and the students and in the middle of the year when she has become accustomed to both. This creates a pattern of repetition which runs through all three texts: for example, although *World Class* has only four sentences to guide the teacher through the tasks, two are exactly the same:

> WC 2 (beginning and middle): They can use the mini-dictionary.

The same is true of *Hotline* and *Open Doors*: the following sentences from the first set of Notes are repeated in the second set:

> HL 1 In this activity, the students use the information in the text to work out the meanings.
>
> HL 2 Don't give the meanings of the words
>
> HL 5 Students read the list of words.
>
> OD 6 Students listen and repeat
>
> OD 13 Demonstrate the dialogue with a good student

The transitivity analysis which follows below will show whether the teachers and students engage in different processes during the Grammar lessons and activities from those in the Vocabulary lessons and activities.

Table 4.4A Transitivity analysis: Teacher participation Vocabulary activities

Material processes	*Verbal processes*	*Mental processes*	*Relational processes*	*Behavioural processes*	*Existential processes*
1 Don't give	1 Ask	1 Choose			
2 Divide	2 Discuss	2 Look at			
3 Draw	3 Explain				
4 Allow (time)	4 Tell				
5 Play (cassette)	5 Read aloud				
6 Demonstrate					
7 Complete					
8 Point to					
9 Check					

Table 4.4B Transitivity analysis :Student participation: Vocabulary activities

Material processes	*Verbal processes*	*Mental processes*	*Relational processes*	*Behavioural processes*	*Existential processes*
1 use	1 repeat	1 justify			
2 follow	2 talk	2 guess			
3 give (answers)	3 tell	3 look at			
4 match	4 name	4 listen			
5 give (names)	5 ask	5 compare			
6 correct	6 answer	6 read			
7 copy	7 read out	7 write			
8 complete					
9 practise					
10 label					

The transitivity table for vocabulary shows similarities with the grammar transitivity table: the predominant processes for students and teachers are material: the texts portray both participants as engaging in more 'doing' activities than mental or verbal processes.

Teachers engage in two mental processes during the teaching of vocabulary compared with nine material processes. The balance is similar for students – five mental processes while they learn new vocabulary compared with twelve material processes. In both Vocabulary and Grammar activities, teachers engage in a wider range of verbal activities than students. A comparison of the processes which teachers engage in during the grammar and vocabulary activities shows that, in total, teachers engage in three mental processes during the teaching of both sets of activities and students in seven. Although it is very likely that both teachers and students will engage in other mental, verbal and material processes during the course of the lesson, these are the processes which the text positions them to experience.

4.5 Conclusions

This chapter has brought the three texts in the Introduction on Grammar and the two on Vocabulary into sharp focus and indicated what kinds of grammatical structures and discursive practices the texts use to address the teacher and to portray the students and the teacher while they work in the classroom. The analysis was guided by the questions posed in Table 2.6 on page 53 and indicated that, overall, the teacher, although she is reading a text which is addressed to her, is backgrounded by the absence of personal pronouns and the use of the passive form. This position is maintained in all sets of Unit Notes with the use of the imperative. Confusion and ambiguity are frequent features of the Introduction as a result of a combination of unclear anaphora and agentless passives. This uncertainty builds on the content analysis from Chapter 3 which indicated that, as the main focus of the Introduction texts was on the accompanying package of materials,

it was not made clear on which principles the course based its methodology or why certain classroom events were to be carried out.

Chapter Five continues to focus on the texts by exploring the situational contexts of the Guides. This interpretation stage puts the texts into a socio-historical framework by making comparisons between the three texts' contents and also draws out from the discourse the different reading and interpreting positions the reader needs to take up in order to make sense of the text's messages.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE CONTEXTS OF INTERPRETATION

5.1 Introduction

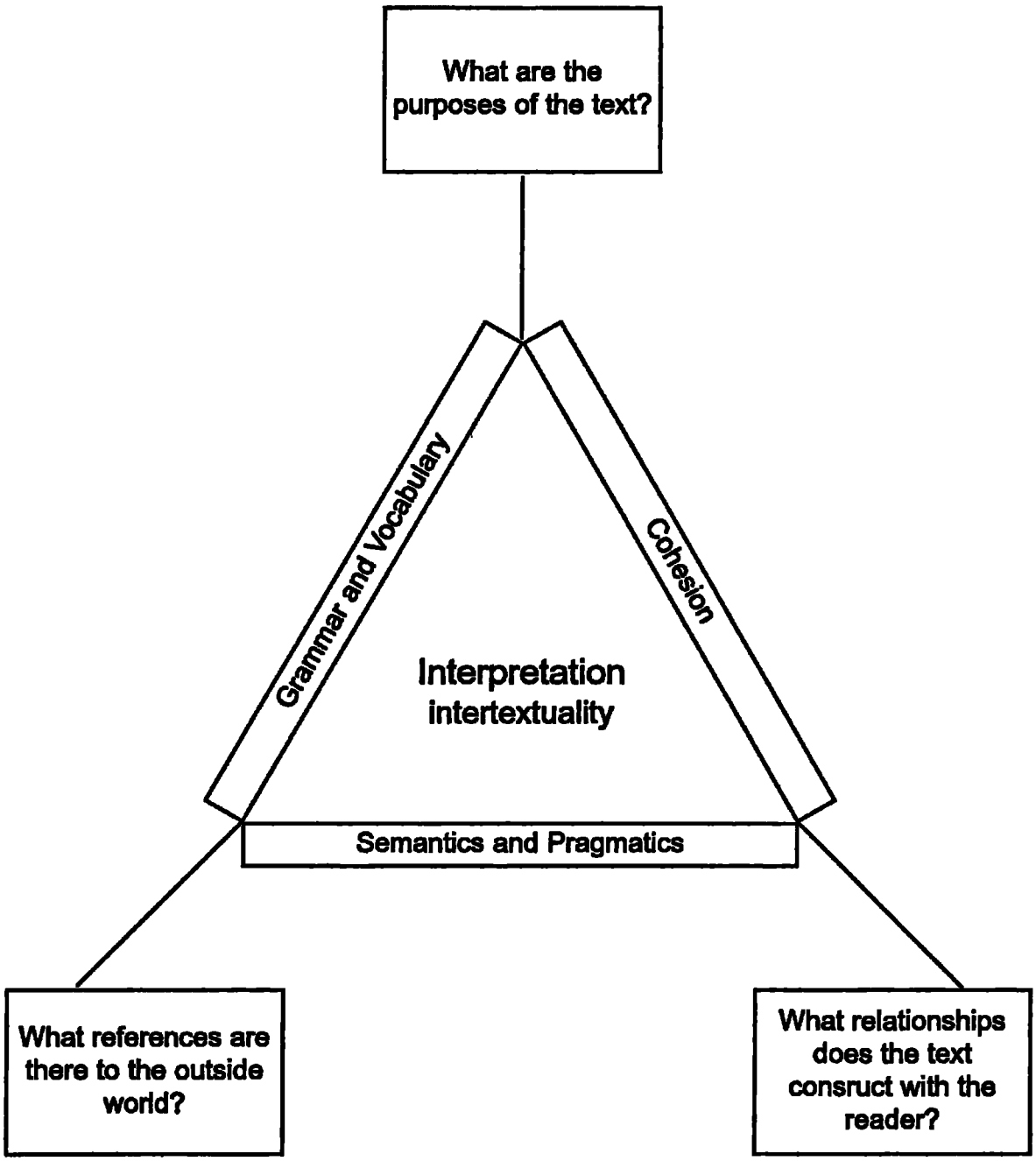
So far in the study two kinds of evidence have been presented about the three Teacher's Guides within the first, description, stage of Fairclough's model. Chapter Three described the structure, sequence and contents of the three Guides. The similarities between them are striking enough to suggest that the text producers conform to the notion of an established product when designing and planning the Guide. Chapter Four described the discursive practices in the Unit Notes and in the Introduction. The combination of the data on the form and subject content in Chapter Three and the examples of discursive practices as shown in Chapter Four provide details of what is in the texts. Chapter Five is now concerned with Fairclough's next stage, that of interpretation.

Central to the process of interpretation is the analysis of the intertextual context of the texts. This chapter, by referring back to the data presented in Chapters Three and Four and the key features of ELT pedagogy as shown in Chapter One, aims to position the

texts within a socio-historical context. Within Fairclough's model, the intertextual analysis shows how texts draw selectively from the conventional practices of different discourses with the aim of showing to what extent and in which ways the text relates to, and reflects, its social and historical contexts, through an analysis of the grammar, vocabulary and cohesion of the text.

Therefore, the interpretation is premissed on the assumption that all texts are part of a socio-historical framework and an intertextual analysis is designed, through further linguistic analysis, to reveal the purposes of the text within this framework and the presuppositions it makes about the readers situations, the relationships it constructs through its discourse with the readers and the references to the outside world, which, in this case are, primarily but not exclusively, to the institutional discourse of ELT. This focus on the historical and social aspects of the discourse is fundamental to placing the analysis within the framework of critical theory with a view to becoming a factor in social change (Hoy and McCarthy: 1994 p16). Figure 5.1 shows the three questions which guide this process of intertextual analysis to an interpretation of the text..This will lead to an evaluation of the possibility of social change in the final chapter.

Fig 5.1 The process of interpretation



5.2 Making sense of the text: The Reader

As shown in Figure 5.1, an interpretation of the text's purpose concerns the linguistic analysis of how the discourse indicates these purposes, references and relationships and what is presupposed that the reader will bring to the text. This does not mean that the interpretation is concerned with the way the readers may use their MR (Members Resources) to read or understand the text, because no interpretation can take into account the almost infinite number of circumstances in which readers read the Teacher's Guides and for what purpose. This is particularly true when it is acknowledged that they are designed to be read in a very broad range of cultures and educational contexts, where teachers from different political and cultural backgrounds will bring a range of different interpretations to the texts. Further, within the same culture, different teachers, depending on their experience, age, gender, professional context and political beliefs may interpret the text in different ways.

Therefore, the interpretation in this study does not consider in what ways these almost infinite combinations of MR could read the texts. Rather, it is concerned with *what* the text provides for them to interpret and *how* it is provided in terms of linguistic and discursive clues. At this stage, it is worth being reminded that the interpretation of a text may be made by the reader and also by an analyst. There are obvious similarities between what they both do, but the reasons for, and outcomes of, each interpretation will necessarily be different, even though some of the mental processes will be the same. This is because the analyst is concerned to explicate and justify what she is doing by being as aware as possible of the MR she is drawing on at each stage of the

interpretation and by positioning the stages of her interpretation within the framework of critical social theory which constructs a questioning and self conscious position.

A key part of interpreting the text is understanding, first, how a reader makes sense of a text, because what she needs to do to make sense of it is closely bound up with what the writer does to produce it. This is particularly true of Teacher's Guides which are written to meet very specific aims, the main one of which is to construct positionings in the text which the readers can identify with or not be able to disagree with.

Fairclough's model shows that, in order to read a text, the reader starts from a situational context, which is the purpose she has for reading the text, and uses her 'member's resources' (MR) to understand the text in accordance with her skills and experience. Some of these skills will require her to make sense, firstly, of what Fairclough calls 'the surface of utterance' which is converting the letters and words on the page into meaning. She will then look at the 'meaning of utterance' which is making sense of the meanings of words and phrases which make up the sentences and the combination of sentences. Thirdly, she is required to make sense of the coherence of the text both at 'local' level , for example, a paragraph and then to make sense of the text at global level, that is, how the whole text coheres. Others skills or experiences involve the reader bringing a schema to bear on the text: for Fairclough, this means predicting, from experience , what the elements of the text are likely to be and the sequence in which they are likely to come. These will also involve the activities which the people in the text are likely to undertake and the roles they play: Fairclough calls this a 'script'. If, as in the case of the texts of Teacher's Guides, the text is about the actions and roles of the reader as teacher,

the reader will also bring the text presuppositions, based on past experience of reading similar texts or on her teaching experience, about the way in which the text will position her.

These describe what the reader's mind brings to the process of making sense of the text. Therefore, for a text to be successful, its production needs to take into account these reader processes (Fairclough, 1989). The analyst also uses her MR to make sense of the surface and meaning of utterance and the local and global cohesion of the text, and in this study, these processes take place while the interpretation looks for answers to the questions shown in the framework in figure 5.1.These different expectations and means of understanding are included in each of the three parts of the analysis and the process of interpretation therefore begins by attempting to answer the first question in Figure 5.1 by analysing the purposes of the texts.

5.3 The purposes of the Teacher's Guide texts

On the surface, the purpose of Teacher's Guide texts is singular – that is, to guide the teacher in her use of the Student's Books and other components of the course. However, even with a text which appears to be as specifically targetted and focussed as a Teacher's Guide, it is possible to distinguish, through the grammatical and lexical structures and the presuppositions made in the text, a number of different purposes which create different subject positions for the reader and draw on different skills in her MR.

As shown in Chapter 3, the main aim of one part of the Introduction is to set out the objectives of the Students' materials which accompany the Guide, and the aim of the second part is to describe the structure and sequence of the activities in Student's book. To both of these reading events the reader brings a different schema because the two sections of the Introductions are marked by different discourse strategies. These indicate different reading positions that may suggest that they are aimed at different target readers or the same readers who have different purposes in reading each section of the text. Readers need to recognise the different discourse strategies that mark the different purposes in order to make sense of the meaning of utterance.

The Teacher's Guide is part of a package of materials which is sold to consumers in a variety of ways, depending on the country. However, it is also sold through the Teacher's Guide, which is often sent to schools or left with the senior teacher as a promotional item. Therefore, although the Introduction is designed to be read by teachers who use the student's book, it also targetted at decision makers, for example, Ministry of Education advisers, teacher trainers, school heads and senior teachers who may have responsibility for deciding which textbook to adopt. The Introduction then also serves the purpose of selling the course to these key people in addition to giving advice and guidance for the user. The decision maker-reader, positioned to make decisions, needs to be persuaded by the text to choose this course book in a very competitive market, and she will approach the introduction text with a different frame, as represented by a different set of questions and presuppositions ,from those of the teacher. The decision maker will expect sentences which give her the information she

needs to persuade her to adopt the course and, as the Introductions are normally divided into two sections, we can assume that the targeted reader for one section is the decision maker and for the other, the teacher. To make this decision, the decision maker needs factual information to answer such questions as; 'Who is the course for?', 'How long is the course?', 'What level of students is it aimed at?' and 'How many teaching hours are needed?'. Teachers, once they start to use a textbook in class (and the decision about which textbook to use is not usually made by teachers), are not concerned with this information. The producer of this part of the Teacher's Guide introduction positions the decision maker as a potential customer, a consumer, and then constructs the text to use the discursive practices of the salesman drawing on some of the 'canonical truths' or 'tenets' of language teaching which pervade the West (Pennycook, 1994. Phillipson, 1992). Therefore, the following, short, factual sentences, which may presuppose a potential customer in a hurry, use a strategic discourse which has an instrumental goal – that of persuading and informing the decision maker to buy.

> *Hotline* is a four year course for teenagers. (*Hotline* p. iv)
> The whole course takes learners from beginners to intermediate level .(*Hotline* p. iv)
> This is the first book in a four part series aimed to take learners from beginner or false beginner to upper intermediate level. (*World Class* p. 3)
> It is aimed at students in the 11-16 age range. (*World Class* p. 3)

Once the consumer has found out the basic details of the course, she then needs to know what the course can 'provide'. The repetition of the word 'provide' throughout the 'sales' sections of the Introduction draws on the discursive lexis of sales strategies to convince the potential customer of the value of the product:

> Each year ***provides*** approximately ninety hours of teaching. A simple self-check is ***provided*** in the Workbook. The Workbook ***provides*** further practice (*Hotline* p. iv)
>
> Each level of the course ***provides*** enough material for approximately ninety-six hours teaching. The Workbook exercises... ***provide*** further practice of the language points... The teaching notes ***provide*** detailed guidance...The photocopiable activities ***provide*** extra speaking practice. (*Open Doors* p.1) (My italics)

Next, the texts 'sell' the course on the role of grammar in the course book and the purpose of persuasion is strengthened by the use of positive, crisp adjectives to describe the teaching of grammar which is 'sound', 'clear', 'careful'.

> At the same time, *Hotline* has a sound grammar based syllabus and a clear, practical methodology. (*Hotline* p.iv)
>
> ... it is also a structural course that gives a clear and careful introduction to English grammar. *(Open Doors* p. 1)
>
> ... the book ....carefully presents and reviews all basic structures from the start ...
> *(World Class* p.3)

The presupposition made by the writer of the text is that this is what the potential customer wants to hear, and, at the same time, serves to reinforce the primary position of grammar in the league table of language learning. Further, it is significant that no scripts are involved here – neither the teacher nor the students are mentioned in this section of the text- the focus is on the book as a product, a commodity which has universal appropriacy.

Next, the course books need to distinguish themselves from their numerous competitors, so the decision maker will expect to find a unique selling point in each text. The presupposition made by the writer is that the consumer will want to have a new course book which reflects contemporary methods or techniques in ELT pedagogy although the writer does not want to make the approach seem too radical for fear alienating the potential consumer. A balance is struck between the old and the new:

> *Hotline* brings together the best of modern and traditional aspects of language teaching. It incorporates modern ideas such as skills development, learner training and project work. (Hotline p. iv)
>
> With this dual approach, *Open Doors* aims to develop vital language skills that will enable Students to communicate both fluently and accurately. (*Open Doors* p.1)

The use of 'will' in the second sentence after the adjective 'vital' establishes a certainty about the efficacy of the product irrespective of context of use, thereby drawing on the expansionist discourse of ELT outlined in Chapter 1, which has, as one of its tenets, that because language teaching is 'neutral', it therefore follows that its techniques and practices can be adopted for universal use, particularly if they are 'modern' (Pennycook, 1994 p 167).

Such extensive use of strong, positive lexis such as 'enjoy', 'succeed', 'fun', 'fast – stream', and 'friendly' in the following sentences, emphasise a sense of persuasive optimism which is designed to close the sales pitch on a high note:

> The course is therefore designed to allow each student not only to enjoy the language learning process, but also to succeed at it, according to his or her individual level of ability and interest. *(Open Doors* p.3)
>
> ... there is a large fun element in *World Class.* Such activities include a wide variety of games, such as guessing games, grammar games and memory games. (*World Class* p 3)
>
> ...the book can be used with 'fast-stream' learners. (*World Class* p.3)
>
> Hotline is , therefore, both learner-centred and teacher friendly.*(Hotline* piv)

The discourse of the salesman is not only marked by positive adjectives but also by the presupposition that the reader/listener shares, or can be persuaded to agree to sharing, the meaning of the sales 'hooks'. The writer assumes, for example, that the reader agrees that a 'learner- centred' approach is desirable and the lack of explanation indicates the expectation of tacit acceptance by the reader of such pedagogic practice. Similarly, it is assumed that 'fun', and 'games' are accepted by the reader to be

pedagogically valid in the language learning classroom. The deeper implications for the role and power relations of ELT in general, and Teacher's Guides in particular, of the discourse of sales and the assumptions which lie behind the value of Western language learning strategies are analysed further in Chapter 6.

Therefore, in order to make sense of one part of the Introduction the reader needs to activate the schema which she would apply to a piece of sales literature on any other product on the market. However, other parts of the Guides, though the use of different discourse strategies, take on a different voices which are linked to the different relationships constructed with the reader. These are discussed in the next section.

5.4 What relationships does the text construct with the reader?

Different relationships can be constructed with the reader throughout an extended piece of discourse such as the Introductions to the Teacher's Guides through the use of a range of linguistic devices. These 'voices' position the teacher in different roles which require her to follow different scripts through a wide range of linguistic style, from the relative informality of the use of 'thing' in the first sentence below to the formal tone of the distant authority as shown in 'Research has shown...'. In one role the text assumes the voice of a sympathetic friend offering banal comfort in the following sentences:

> A foreign language can often seem an unreal thing. (Hotline p vii)
>
> Most students are better at some subjects than others. (Open Doors p.5)
>
> One of the biggest problems with classes of mixed ability is that students tend to finish exercises at different rates. (World Class p.4)
>
> 4 Those who finish before the others get bored and occasionally become disruptive. (Open Doors p 5)

In the following two sentences, the text speaks to the teacher as a senior colleague: here she is being reminded of things which the text presupposes she already knows, as shown by the 'of course' in the first sentence and the 'remember' in the second:

> 1 However, the amount of material you cover will of course vary according to your particular teaching situation. (Open Doors p 4)
>
> 2 Remember that the traditional classroom has quite a lot of noise in it too. (Hotline p viii)

In the following sentences, the use of 'You may like to...', 'it is a good idea' and the use of 'in order to' suggest the voice of the tutor giving advice on a training programme;

> 1 You may like to note down the homework you plan to set at the end of the lesson. (Open Doors. P 4)
>
> 2 In order to encourage the students to practise as much as possible, it is a good idea to establish English as the main language to be used in the classroom. (World Class p5)
>
> 3 In order to speak with confidence, students need as much practice as possible. (Open Doors p5)

The voice of the head of department in the following sentences has greater gravitas and is marked by phrases such as 'it is important to..' and 'it is essential to...':

> 1 For any of these strategies to work it is essential to cultivate an open and healthy attitude towards errors in your class.(Hotline p.vii)
>
> 2 It is important to realise that classes of mixed ability and motivation are the rule an not the exception in language teaching. (Open Doors p.5)
>
> 3 It is important to have a clear idea of the aims of the lesson. (Open Doors p 5)

The voice of a distant authority figure, such a visiting speaker, who uses research to support pedagogy is suggested in the following sentences:

> 1 Research has shown that mistakes are an inevitable part of language learning and usually disappear with increased language ability. (Open Doors p 4)
>
> 2 There are some errors that are best seen as developmental errors (Hotline. P vii)

This range of voices construct different reading positions for the reader which require her to use her MR to move between different scripts, in an almost unpredictable sequence, as she is reading the text. The texts create one further, more important,

relationship with the reader which is constructed by drawing on references to the outside world. This analysis follows in the next section.

5.5 References to the outside world

In his model, Fairclough emphasises the role of grammatical devices such as the use of the definite article and pronouns to make reference beyond and also inside the text. As the purpose of this study is to discover *what* Teacher's Guides say about ELT, the outside world here refers to the discourse of ELT and *how* this is referred to lexically, rather than grammatically, in the texts.

Throughout the three Introductions, references are made to terms which are, generally, used only within the context of language learning. For example:

> At this level lexical input is much more carefully graded than in following levels of the series. (*World Class* p. 4)
>
> It is a mistake to think of L1and L2 as two completely separate domains (*Hotline* p. ix)
>
> In Language Focus lessons target input is controlled...(*World Class* p.4)

'Target input', 'lexical input' and 'L1 and L2' are frequently used terms within the metalanguage of ELT but do not fall within the corpus of general English ('domain' also carries with it a trace of its psychology origins). Their use in the Introductions suggests, therefore, that the writer feels that the reader would prefer the use of these terms instead of, for example, 'vocabulary levels' for 'lexical input' or 'first and second language' for 'L1 and L2 or 'new language' for 'target input' as they validate or invite membership of the discourse community of ELT. There is a risk that they may be unfamiliar to many native and non-native speaker teachers, but their use in the text presupposes that

understanding the terminology is a pre-requisite of joining the institution or discourse community of ELT.

Other terms refer to particular theories in ELT which have been brought in from socio-linguistics and SLA research to support practices, techniques and methods in the language learning classroom. The texts include references to an extensive number of these terms which are rarely glossed. The assumption is therefore, that the reader is familiar with both the theoretical background and the classroom practice to which the terms refer. For example:

> Thus in Skills lessons, the reading and listening texts provide exposure to language and opportunities for acquisition. *(Open Doors* p 4)
>
> There is, however, a balance between receptive skills, where students are exposed to authentic language input and productive skills ..(*Open Doors* p. 5)

The use of the words 'expose' and 'exposure' in both sentences, combined in the first sentence with the word 'acquisition,' used instead of the more usual word 'learning', infer that the reader is familiar with Krashen's input hypothesis and aware of the distinction between 'learning' and 'acquisition'. This assumption can be seen as a means of welcoming the reader as an equal member of the discourse community of ELT and presupposes that the reader is, or would like to be, or should be, an equal member of the ELT discourse. Further, the absence of justification or reference to the debate which surrounds these terms, which would be indicated by devices of modality, creates no dialogic space for the reader to question the appropriacy or validity of such practices within her teaching context.

Other examples reinforce the assumption that the teacher supports the use of particular pedagogic practices which follow on from an acceptance of one SLA theory. For example, one tenet of ELT practice which resulted from Krashen's input hypothesis as it trickled through the communicative approach, was the increasing use of authentic or semi authentic texts in the classroom as a means of providing learners with the necessary exposure to language. The Introductions reinforce the importance of this teaching device:

> Towards the end of the book, texts become longer and more challenging, to prepare students for the authentic texts they will meet in the second level. (*World Class* p. 4)
>
> There is, however, a balance between receptive skills, where students are exposed to authentic language input and productive skills ..(*Open Doors* p. 5)

The texts presuppose that, in line with one of the key principles behind the communicative approach (Yalden, 1986 p 128), the teacher not only accepts the value of authentic texts as part of ELT pedagogy but also recognises what, in terms of language teaching, an authentic text is and how it can be used appropriately for the benefit of the learners in the classroom. As the use of authentic materials is clearly stated as being a key feature of the philosophy and pedagogy of the course book, the use of the materials places the teacher in a position of having to tacitly acquiesce to their value in her classroom. Her acceptance gains her membership of the discourse community.

References to other aspects of ELT theory and practice also aim to encourage the teacher to accept the appropriacy of BANA generated theories of language learning and their resulting practices in her own teaching context. For example, this sentence from *World Class* which uses the phrases 'interference from L1' suggests a knowledge of the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis (Lado, 1957).

> The Doctor Grammar sections in the revision lesson focus on particular difficulties with certain structural areas and common mistakes caused either by interference from L1 or from the complexity of the structure...(*World Class* p.5)

The fact that revision sections are specifically supplied to deal with problems which may arise from such interference concurs with the strong form of the Contrastive Analysis theory which suggests that all L2 errors can be predicted depending on the L1 of the learner. The truth of the theory is not of concern here, but what is of importance is that the text assumes that the teacher will know what this means and to which theory of SLA it refers. The teacher who is not familiar with this background will not understand the reason for supplying the 'Doctor Grammar' sections.

In summary, the purposes of the Introduction range from selling the course book, giving advice and encouraging acceptance of the appropriacy of certain BANA generated pedagogic practices which the text presupposes are, or should be, already familiar to the reader. The analysis of how these practices are introduced and then absorbed into the discourse of ELT, thereby creating a discursive intertextuality while constructing a different relationship with the reader, is the focus of the following section.

5.6 Features of intertextuality

All discourses have histories, and the texts which belong to them are part of this history. In order to add a socio-historical dimension to the process of interpretation the analysis needs to take into account how discourse develops. Each text is moulded by previous texts within the same discourse. They build on them and/or respond to them through additions, amendments or disagreements. Foucault argued:

> ... there can be no statement that in one way or another does not reactualize others.
>
> (1972, p98 quoted in Fairclough, 1992).

Therefore, all texts - spoken or written - are part of a continuing linking chain of repetitions, references and reinforcements with the result that texts are created which contains, in varying degrees and emphases, the words and ideas of its predecessors. The resulting text is 'intertextual' because it draws on the absorbed memory and experience of the language and concepts of past texts. The example sentences in the previous section show how the Teacher's Guides reinforce particular aspects of ELT discourse by presupposing that they are understood equally across the community, thereby constructing and strengthening a particular world view of language teaching whose features are already embedded in the discourse.

However, at the same time as reinforcing existing discursive practices, all texts draw on other discourses to introduce innovation and change, and if the text is concerned with persuading a potential customer of the value of this innovation, it needs to be able to draw on a range of persuasive discursive strategies in order to convince the reader of its value. The business of ELT requires that it constantly introduces innovation to its products in order to expand sales, but, at the same time, it needs to be able to convince their customers that such innovations are relevant and worthwhile in their teaching context. In order to create a valid merchandising case, the Teacher's Guide text needs to use different linguistic strategies to introduce a new feature of ELT from those used to refer to well established ones. The following section shows a further purpose for the Teacher's Guide text and how it constructs, through different linguistic strategies, a further relationship with the teacher.

Hotline devotes half its Introduction to the explanation of the value of project work (3000 words) in which it reassures and encourages the teacher to accept the innovation of project work in the ELT classroom. This long text then subsequently acts as a benchmark for the other two Introductions in their presentations of Project work and then begins a line of intertextual history. *Hotline* needs to draw on a discourse other than ELT to give it credibility and to establish its roots of intertextual history so that later texts have a framework to re-interpret. It chooses the discourse of education:

> There is a growing awareness among language teachers that the process and content of the language class should contribute towards the general educational development of the learner. Project work is very much in tune with modern views about the purpose and nature of education. *(Hotline* p ix)

The absence of a definition of the 'nature and purpose' of education or an explanation of what the 'general educational development' of the learner may consists of, allows the teacher to engage with the text as a individual professional who can bring her own interpretation of these concepts, depending on her own experience and cultural background. She activates a schema which allows her to engage with the text as a interested professional. After reassuring the teacher that project work is not a new methodology', it immediately moves its frames of intertextual reference from the discourse of ELT to that of mainstream curriculum subject areas:

> Its benefits have been recognised for many years in the teaching of subjects like Science, Geography and History. *(Hotline* p viii)

> ...cross curricular approaches are encouraged... this means that students should have the opportunity to use the knowledge they gain in other subjects in the English class. *(Hotline* p ix)

The importance of embedding project work within the safe discourse of education is reinforced by the repetition of the strong phrase 'educational values'

> Firstly, there is the question of educational values. Most modern school curricula require all subjects to encourage initiative, independence, imagination, self discipline, co-operation and the development of useful research skills. *(Hotline* p. ix)
>
> .... a concern for educational values, that is, how the language curriculum relates to the general educational development of the learner.(*Hotline* p. viii)

The first sentence locates project work within the discourse of education, inferring, at the same time, that this is the discourse of BANA education whose value and validity are underpinned by the adjective 'modern' which presupposes that modern educational characteristics are more worthwhile than traditional ones and are therefore universally acceptable. The noun 'benefits' which is used twice in the first five sentences and then on the following page, combined with the word 'virtue' which is used in the conclusion, return to the discourse of education but also have traces of the discourse of medicine:

> What benefits does project work bring to the language class? (*Hotline* p. viii)
>
> It has the added virtue of being a long –established and well-tried method of teaching in other subject areas. (*Hotline* p ix)
>
> Project work brings considerable benefits to the language classroom...(*Hotline* p. ix)

References to the discourse of education require the use of formal discourse devices such as the suppression of the presence of the writer and any other agents through the use of the passive ('Its benefits have been widely recognised', 'cross curricular approaches are encouraged') and the use of declarative. However, once the boundaries of the context of the discourse have been established, the writer then employs the features of a person-to-person discourse to create a more intimate and persuasive relationship with the teacher.

Four linguistic devices are used to construct a more intimate relationship with the reader. The first is the increased use of pronouns :the use of the first person plural 'we' suggests sincerity, and the second person singular 'you' suggests warmth. Secondly,the

use of an informal style which, in places, reflects patterns used more normally in speech, thirdly, a wide range of positive adjectives and, finally, the inclusion of quotations from other teachers which are used to endorse the benefits of the new product and to construct a shared world view.

> 'Pupils don't feel that English is a chore, but is a means of communication and enjoyment. They can experiment with the language as something real not as something that only appears in books. (Marisa Cuesta, Spain) *(Hotline* p. viii)
>
> 'There is feedback from the students as they realise what they can do with the English they have learned. (Jesus-Angel Vallejo Carrasco, Spain) *(Hotline* p. viii)

All these features are designed to persuade the teacher that there is a high correlation between using project work and creating a successful classroom event which is reinforced by the high number of positive words across all parts of speech. The following list of the words and phrases which the texts use to collocate with 'project work' and 'students' reveals to what extent the first text, *Hotline* makes the case for persuading readers of the value of project work.

Table 5.1 Words which collocate with student and project work in the three Introductions

Hotline		***World Class***		***Open Doors***	
Project work	**Student**	**Project work**	**Student**	**Project work**	**Student**
1 Motivating	Enjoy	Worthwhile	Satisfaction	Ideal	Creative
2 Personal	Motivated	Motivating	Inventing	Meaningful	Personal
3 Active medium	Achievement		Finding things out	Relevant	Sense of achievement
4 Learning through doing	Own pace and level		Displaying	High quality product	Pride
5 Worthwhile product	Take pride in		Imagination	Time consuming	Own pace
6 Communicative skills	Working independently		Drawing	Lengthy	Own level
7 Relevant	Taking		Writing	Elaborate	Responsibility

	responsibility				
8 Productive activity	Managing learning		Creating	Less ambitious	Concentrate on
9 Rich learning experiences	Devote time		Working together		
10 Valuable	Effort				
11Own momentum	Invest a lot of themselves				
12Creativity	Do their best work				
13 Imagination	Initiative				
14 Enquiry	Imagination				
15 Self expression	Independence				
16 Exciting	Self-discipline				
17 Practical	Co-operation				
18 Long-established	Research skills				
19 Well-tried	Educational development				
20 Cross curricular					
21 Practical					
22 Positive					

It is significant that the writer of *Hotline* is required to use more than twice as many words to persuade teachers of the value of project work than the later two Guides. The assumption that project work is a valid part of classroom work is evidenced by the absence of salesmanship in *World Class* and *Open Doors.*

The salesmanship in *Hotline* is reinforced by the repeated use of 'you', designed to create an emotional response in the reader:

> If you talk to teachers who do project work in their classes, you will find that this is the feature that is always mentioned - the students really enjoy it. *(Hotline* p .viii)
>
> Secondly, when choosing to do project work, you need to recognise that you are making a philosophical choice in favour of the quality of the learning experience over the quantity. *(Hotline* p. ix)
>
> If you haven't got reference books available, the students will ask you.(Hotline p. x)

This relationship becomes closer by making (a unique) reference to the individual teacher's teaching context:

> There are some guidelines for assessing projects, but, of course, you know best what is necessary and possible in your own system, (*Hotline* page xi)

The intimacy of this new relationship is strengthened by the use of the first person plural as both an inclusive and a non-inclusive 'we', which clearly refers, in a less than formal manner, sometimes to writer, and sometimes to the writer and the reader:

> We could add to these a third element. (*Hotline* p. viii)
> Lets look at these in a bit more detail. (*Hotline* p. x)
> And that's what we want to encourage, not suppress! (*Hotline* p. x)
> When we communicate, all we can do is the best we can with what we know. (*Hotline* p. xi)

The relaxed style of this discourse is in strong contrast to that of the declarative sentences which mark much of the rest of the Introduction texts and draws on the discursive practices of the persuasive salesman to establish the innovation of project work in the discourse of ELT. The linguistic and content differences between the *Hotline* text on project work and those of *Open Doors* and *World Class* four years later are significant, which suggests that between 1991 and 1994, project work had become established as an accepted feature of ELT. These later texts (reproduced in full in the appendix) are much shorter and have no need to locate project work in the discourse of education, nor to use the linguistic features of relaxed, persuasive discourse. The use of the passive constructions in both texts reinforces the position of project work as a standard, unquestionable feature of ELT practice:

> (WC) 7 All of the projects at this level are carefully staged and students are introduced to the writing process in this way.
>
> (OD) 11 Project work can either be done individually or in groups.

The analysis of the linguistic means by which project work is so rapidly absorbed into the fabric of ELT discourse and classroom practice is an indication of how effective the presuppositions made by later texts are in reinforcing and reactualising the ideas of

previous ones. This example of an intertextual chain within the discourse of ELT shows how different aspects of the reader's MR need to be activated in order to process the language which presents different purposes of the texts. The discourse of the Introductions to the Teacher's Guides requires the reader to interpret meaning by using different processing strategies and the resulting interpretation is affected by the practices which characterise her social context.

5.7 Conclusions

In this chapter, the focus of attention has been on the relationships between the text and the reader and the reader and her societal and institutional contexts. The interpretation showed that text places the reader in a number of different reading positions by making presuppositions about her skills and experience (her MR). The interpretation did not attempt to estimate how the individual teacher would respond to the presuppositions but used example sentences to indicate the intention of the writer. For the first time, examples were made available of the writer, as an individual addressing the reader directly for the purpose of persuasion and encouragement. This role is in sharp contrast to other roles of authority and power evident in other sections of the same text.

This chapter concludes the micro-examination of the text and now moves to place the texts in the macro-context of the ELT discourse community. This context is determined by three levels of social organisation; the societal level, the institutional level and the situational level and at each of these levels there are different ways of explaining the discourse of the Teacher's Guides by focusing on the production and consumption of

ELT texts in order to establish to what extent the patterns of discourse and the relations and purposes they establish in the Teacher's Guides are reflected on a larger scale. Chapter 6 examines the implications of the presuppositions indicated in this chapter within the global context of ELT.

CHAPTER SIX

TEXTS, POWER AND PRODUCTION: CONCLUDING COMMENTS

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter starts by offering some explanations for some of the ways, as evidenced in the Teacher's Guides, that the social/classroom practices of ELT pedagogy are shaped by the societal and institutional levels of organisation. It continues by offering a critique of the research method and, by extension, the position of discourse analysis as a research method. It concludes by suggesting possible lines of future research enquiry into Teacher's Guides.

The data in the last three chapters present an analysis of *what* the Teacher's Guides say and *how* they say it. The conclusion, or explanation, concerns itself with establishing reasons for *why* Teacher's Guides say what they say in the ways in which they say it. Once some reasons have been put forward, it will then be possible to see what implications these have on the design and purpose of future research into Teacher's Guides.

6.2 Explanation stage: Imbalances of power

Some evidence of an imbalance in power relations has been suggested throughout the study but have not been explored detail. This chapter, therefore, by looking at some of the different agencies in whose interest it is in that the Teachers Guides say what they do in the way that they say it, attempts to place these reasons in the larger institutional context of ELT.

Building on Habermas' claim that our lives are colonized by systems of money and power, Fairclough's model of Critical Discourse Analysis is underpinned by the purpose of revealing imbalances of power relations as expressed in the discourse and discursive practices of texts (Fairclough, 1989 p 3). These imbalances of power are reflected in the social structures and by the social actors whose actions are constructed by the available discourse and they are reproduced through the texts. They may reflect continuing social or political struggles, as shown in the Janks' analysis of the South African advertisement (Janks, 1997) or they may reflect how the relationships of power are established and naturalised by those in power (Fairclough, 1989 p 163). Fairclough argues that imbalances of power are either implicitly or explicitly stated in all texts and text types as reflections of the discourse of which they are part. Therefore, an understanding of the extent to which this is true of Teacher's Guides texts and the discourse and content devices they use to construct positions of power provides the explanation for the analysis. Teacher's Guides are sited within the larger framework of institutional ELT discourse, and any reasons which may explain how these imbalances of power are

expressed in the way they are in the micro level of the Guides, need to start from the more macro context of ELT and the relationships of power which characterise the positions, purposes and activities of the key players on the uneven, and rapidly expanding, playing field of ELT.

6.3 The power of the native speaker

As noted in Chapter 1, ELT is big business for BANA countries – for example,it brought in £250 million last year into Ireland alone (figures quoted in the Irish Independent 5 October 2000) and a shift from the discourse of aid and development to the discourse of multinationalism has placed ELT in the business of becoming a 'a service industry',

> ... supplying people with a service- English language teaching – and a commodity- the English language (White, 1987, p.221 quoted in Pennycook 1994 p 145)

One way of maintaining an unchallenged position within this service industry is to construct a range of 'canonical truths' (Pennycook, 1994) or tenets' about ELT (Phillipson, 1992) which can be reinforced through the discourse of ELT, to convince their potential customers of the continuing value of their goods and expertise. All imbalances of power rely on one party deferring to the superiority of another through the reinforcement of particular influential intellectual constructs. Out of Phillipson's list of five tenets, one in particular continues to have a decisive influence on the nature and content of ELT. This is that the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker, often to the detriment of the confidence and self-esteem of the non-native speaker teacher. (Phillipson, 1992 p193) A claim supported in Elgazette (Dec 2000 p 13) and evidenced in two recent advertisements for teachers. As recently as 14 November 2000, the

government of Hong Kong placed an advertisement on page 42 in the Education Guardian with the heading 'Native –speaking English teachers for secondary schools in Hong Kong'. On page 46 of the same edition, the King Fahd University Petroleum and Minerals in Saudi Arabia invited applications for teaching posts from native speakers of English. [34]

> For years highly qualified and competent teachers have been ignored because of market bias towards native speakers.(Griffiths, p13)

Arguments against the truth of this tenet have continued since a Unesco mongraph in 1953 (Strevens, quoted in Pennycook 1994 p 194: Rampton 1990) and are not of concern here. However, what is of significance to the maintaining of the imbalance of power between the BANA and those outside (that is, the TESEP countries), is that, with an acceptance of the tenet of the superiority of the native speaker teacher comes an acceptance of the superior value of the products written by a native speaker writer which are endorsed and published by a native speaker publisher. Further, these products can be sold more persuasively when they can offer the security and benefits of a 'method' which, as Cook argues, has placed teachers under an enormous amount of pressure to conform 'because of the commercial,academic and political vested interests in certain ways of teaching'. (Cook ELTeaching Matters Jan 2001, p.1)

6.4 The power of the method

In line with the influence of positivist scientism, which has governed the search for new knowledge in the BANA countries since the Enlightenment, pedagogy has been shaped

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by a conviction in the need for and success of, methods. For example, the teaching of mother tongue reading has been variously influenced by the methods of 'Look and Say' and phonics. Mindful of the concern that some pedagogic practices may be better labelled 'techniques' or 'approaches' (Richards and Rogers, 1982), the history of ELT offers a chronology of 'methods', some of which include the Direct method, the Grammar- Translation method, the Audiolingual method and the Communicative method/approach.

This plethora of 'methods' is not surprising in a socio-cultural context which feels more comfortable with evaluation strategies which can quantify success and failure and cause and effect by the statistical means which are fundamental to the infrastructure of scientific and empirically based systems of knowledge. This is because methods require systems to activate and support them; such systems can be staged, monitored and evaluated. As has been the case since the Industrial revolution, a system constructed and validated through science or technology is then commodified by businesses and sold as a product which can be endorsed by the empirical findings of science. BANA wealth is founded on a strong tradition of this successful transfer of science based discoveries to the market place. In terms of ELT, research in learning and language can be commodified into methods for learning and teaching which can then be transmitted through the product of the textbook. This combination of the domains and skills of science and those of business provides two significant means of creating the *status quo* of power relations within the wider institution of ELT. One of the primary effects of this unchallenged position is the prescriptivism of its practice which over-rides issues of

situational appropriacy and teachers' skills and experience. (Apple, 1982: Pennycook, 1994: Philippson, 1992: Giroux, 1983). The Teacher's Guides texts offer a range of evidence to indicate that the certainty of prescriptivism is a key feature of the discourse of ELT: the bullet pointed list of teacher actions in the Unit Notes and the provision of scripted sentences or questions for her to repeat, the use of the imperative and declarative forms, the certainty of the simple present for student action, task procedure and outcome and the limited number of verbs used to express teacher mental processes and the suppression of the teacher's presence or influence in the classroom event are all clues to this desire to contain and control the social practice of teaching and learning.

Further, the absence in the Unit notes of references to a teacher's individual classroom circumstances, her individual strengths or preferences or those of the students suggest a reluctance on the part of the writer to admit that there may be alternatives to the strategies suggested in the text. These combine to construct a context of prescriptivism which allows few opportunities for the teacher to reflect on the philosophy behind the practice of the prescribed pedagogy nor on its relevance and appropriacy to her own classroom practices. This reluctance to concede the possibility of other methods is summed up by Wu Jing-Yu

> Some EFL specialists, thinking that they have the best ideas and methods, are intolerant of ideas and methods different from their own.(quoted in Pennycook 1994 p162)

If an idea or method is endorsed by the certainty of scientific 'truth', then it follows that is universally true and applicable. Rampton's list of the characteristics of the autonomous model of major currents of research into ELT supports the tendency to view applied linguistics and ELT as 'neutral technologies' (eg Corder 1973, 12-13 and

Munby 1978) because research into SLA is regarded as objective and essentially neutral politically. (Rampton, 1995, p 235) However, if Applied linguistics research operates, as research into science does, on the basis that it is value free, then the impact that this has on assumptions about the social practice of language learning and teaching affects its transmission to other cultures and its control over relations of power. Nevertheless, language teaching (and the research which feeds it), like other forms of teaching, cannot be neutral, because it arises from a larger discursive order which is grounded in a particular world view.

> What we teach and particularly the *way* we teach, reflects our attitudes to society in general and the individual's place in society, and that our educational practice is an implicit statement of power relationships, of how we see authority in the classroom, and by extension, in society outside the classroom.(Prodromou, 1988 p74-5)

This is true for both the content and practice of ELT. The assumptions made in the Teacher's Guides, which reflect those made in the wider discourse, about the value of particular pedagogic practices are rooted in a particular set of social, educational and moral values which are not as transferable from one context to another as the discourse would suggest (Holliday, 1994). It is significant to note that, throughout the three Teacher's Guides in the study, there is only one example of recognition in the text that the teacher may have some expertise or judgement which can be brought to bear in the classroom:

> There are some guidelines for assessing projects, but, of course, you know best what is necessary and possible in your own system, (*Hotline* page xi)

In terms of the social practice of the classroom event such prescriptivism can lead to difficulties, as Shamim points out,

> **The introduction of imported methods may result in confusion for both the teacher and students, with the result that learners feel they have a sanction to indulge in forms of behaviour which would be termed deviant in the traditional classroom.**
> **(Shamim quoted in Holliday 1994 p107)**

The inappropriacy of the transfer of skills and methods, in terms of their use in the classroom, particularly through BANA managed and funded aid projects, has been well documented and is not of direct relevance here. (Holliday, 1994: Coleman: 1992 : Phillipson: 1992 and Pennycook: 1994 Cortazzi:1990). What is of significance, however, is the part that the Teacher's Guide texts play in presupposing that the pedagogic practices which it recommends can, irrespective of social and situational context, be interpreted comfortably by the teacher.

In this sense, the Teacher's Guide text shares similarities with the position of overseas project advisors, in that its discursive practices serve to reinforce the global appropriacy of particular pedagogic practices drawn from BANA generated SLA theories. If the teacher is familiar and comfortable with the practice which is being described or explained in the text, her MR construct 'normative relations' with the text. In other words, as she is reading the text she makes sense of it in accordance with her own world view within her societal and institutional frameworks. However, if the text is describing a pedagogic practice which does not fit with her world view, or with her societal or institutional framework, her MR recognises the mismatch and struggles to make sense of what the text is suggesting. These mismatches create moments of crisis for the reader as she struggles to make a meaning which in some way could be constructed to conform with her own experience.

6.5 The power of research

The research infrastructure continues to be dominated by the BANA countries and the products, the methods and/or the textbooks which derive from this research are often produced by these native speaker experts who have conducted or evaluated this research. For example, the claims for the value of the Natural approach were endorsed by claims that it was

> ...based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition, which has been supported by a large number of scientific studies in a wide variety of language acquisition and learning contexts. (Krashen and Terrell, 1983 p1 quoted in Pennycook, 1989 p 607)

The pedagogy and the commodification of the Natural approach arose out of Krashen's research into language acquisition. This is one example of how the dearth of research into ELT in the literature carried out outside the BANA countries means that not only is the epistemology of language learning, and its discourse, monopolised and controlled by the West but also its means of dissemination, production and consumption. This manifests itself in a circular validation of knowledge which serves the interests of all those who produce and commodify it.

> ...the definition and academic legitimation of methods is clearly beneficial to the publishing industry...As Richards (1984) argues "Many an underpaid academic has ...succumbed to the attractive offers to lightly work over an audiolingual or structural course so that it can be published in a new edition bearing a ... communicative label."
> (Pennycook, 1989 p607)

These struggles exemplify the relations of power which are present within the discourse and practice of ELT and which are then codified in the sentences in the text. Some examples of pedagogic practice which may cause this kind of struggle are given in Chapter 5 but one further example is the place of 'fun and games' in the ELT classroom. Playing games and singing songs does not match what would be considered

best pedagogic practice in, for example, some countries in the Middle East, where this feature of ELT practice is seen as one way of trivialising the classroom event and placing the teachers and students in unaccustomed roles and patterns of behaviour which may undermine their social positon and status (Pennycook, 1994. Holliday, 1994). Therefore, a teacher from such a societal or institutional context who reads in the Teacher's Guide that

> ...there is a large fun element in *World Class*.. Such activities include guessing games, grammar games and memory games...

would have difficulty in being able to draw on appropriate MR skills. This struggle reinforces the unequal positions of power held by the reader and the producer of the text. These positions may be exacerbated if the reader is an inexperienced teacher who, in terms of language competence, may be only a hair's breadth away from where her learners stand and lacks confidence in the language which she is teaching and who may, depending on her societal context, be already conditioned to a position of deference to a native speaker 'expert'. (Coleman, 1985)

6.6 The power of the scientific and business discourses

The discourse which the Teacher's Guide chooses to draws on to describe the pedagogic process defines a position of strength and superiority. The positioning of SLA research and its pedagogic practice within the neutrality of scientific truth combined with the context of big business provides ELT with the discourses of empiricism and corporate capitalism. For example, from a scientific discourse it can use terms such as 'strategies' and 'input' and from a business discourse it can use terms such as 'goals', 'objectives', 'outcomes' and 'procedures'. All three Teacher's Guide Introductions draw on the

discourses of science, engineering and business to describe the process of learning and teaching;

> One of the main features of *Hotline* is developing good learning strategies.
> When a useful learning strategy is introduced it is shown in a grey box. (*Hotline* p vii)

> Here are some possible strategies...
> *Open Doors* aims to train students to develop learning strategies that will make them more effective learners
> So they have a firm foundation on which to build
> It provides the students with some basic tools.
> *Open Doors* aims to train students, by giving them a solid grounding ...
>
> (*Open Doors* pp 4-5)

The terms 'grounding', 'effective' and 'useful' reflect a positions of superior judgement which the teacher is presupposed to accept as universally valid because their pedagogic practice is embedded in the value –free domain of science. The discourse of science, or more particularly, that of electrical engineering, which Kramsh notes, provided the social practice of ELT with the term 'input' and the causal result 'output'. The input, that is the language which the producer of the text decides the students need to know, is provided by the textbook and the output is monitored and evaluated by the tests which are also provided by the producer of the text. (Kramsch, in Cook and Seidlhofer, 1995 p 53) The relations of power as structured by the domains and discourses of science and business on which ELT draws construct social practices which result in a disempowered positioning of the teacher and the learner.

6.7 The power of the target culture

An imbalance of power relations is further sustained by the perceived need to learn about the target culture while learning the target language:

> ...dates from a time when language teaching was indistinguishable from culture teaching, and when all learner of English were assumed to be familiarising themselves with the culture that English originates from and for contact with that culture.(Phillipson, 1992 p 195)

A key assumption is embedded in this fallacy which continues to scaffold the power relationships in ELT is that if the teaching and learning of language involves the teaching and learning of culture, then it is the prerogative of the native speaker organisation to provide this. The *Hotline* Teacher' Guide Introduction expresses support of this tenet:

> The Teachers Book contains lesson notes, which provide explanations of ...cultural points that arise in each unit: (Hotline p.iv)

The fact that notes on cultural points are provided in each Unit suggests that for the producer of *Hotline* there continues to be a high correlation between learning the language and learning the culture. Similarly, the *World Class* Introduction states that it provides notes which explain references in the texts in the Unit Notes. These references refer to aspects of 'English or American culture' which are mentioned in the Student's Book and include, for example, an explanation of *Gullivers Travels* on Page 86, details about the life of Billy the Kid on Page 74 and information about a 'typical English village' on page 55. This constant reinforcement of the sanctity of the marriage between language and culture in ELT products, creates in the consumers both a need for, and an expectation of, cultural content in the teaching materials and information on cultural issues to be provided in the Teacher's guide. Provision of such material is one of the means by which the owner of the target culture maintains a position of power over teachers whose cultural experience of the BANA countries may be minimal.

This requirement for cultural content is exacerbated by the concern to provide 'authentic' materials (see Chapter 5) which are designed to represent the reality of the target culture and target language use. The notion of authenticity, in line with that of the need for culture, is dependent on the authority of the native speaker. Within the domain of ELT , the native speaker is a fictional ideal, to which the learners can aspire to emulate by using native-speaker authentic language with reference to native speaker culture. The non-native-speaker teacher, when placed in a pedagogic context in which the judgement can only be made by a native speaker, is placed in position of disempowerment.

6.8 The power of the publishers

However, it is not only the discourse of ELT products which serve to maintain an imbalance in power relations, the means by which the products and their producers gain access to the market place is also a key factor in constructing control. Firstly, in line with multinational industrial practice, these materials which the Teacher's Guide accompanies, need to be constructed in such a way that the consumers will feel a need to replace them as frequently as possible. The pressure which is applied by publishers' agents to governments and individual schools in a large number of countries to adopt new textbooks is immense, and the rewards offered to decision makers for adoption can range from the provision of additional materials for the library to material goods such as televisions and video machines to the subsidisation of an all expenses paid (study) trip for the minister, the head of a school to the UK or the USA. These are not inconsiderable enticements in the large numbers of emerging countries which have

insufficient hard currency to spend on importing foreign materials but who have been persuaded to accept another key tenet of ELT - that those who know English are better off than those who do not (Pennycook, 1994). For the supply of school text books on a large scale, contracts are signed with a government which commit the host country to buying the textbook for, usually, between three and five years and the publisher to providing training programmes for the teachers who will be using the course. In some cases, the publisher's trainer becomes a full time member of staff in the host country's Ministry of Education offices, advising on curriculum changes which reflect the development of current materials produced by the BANA publisher. In other cases, education advisors who are employed by the host country's Ministry of Education receive a hard currency stipend from a BANA publisher in return for ensuring that the appropriate course books are made available for decision making and those from other publishers are 'disappeared'.

This arrangement has a number of advantages for both sides: the government agrees to this commitment because the publisher is offering 'free' teacher training which it would otherwise have to pay for itself and it also solves the problem of having to find local, sufficiently qualified personnel to carry it out. For the publisher one of the financial advantages is that once a long term relationship of this kind has been established, the replacement of the old textbook by another one after three or five years may be relatively straightforward. The arrangement also constructs its own imbalance of power relations, in which the host government loses a large element of control over the training of its teachers and in doing so, tacitly espouses the epistemological and theoretical

background to the pedagogic practice as evidenced by the tasks in the textbook. This arrangement is often made more acceptable to the host country because the trainers will be native speakers to whom teachers will be expected to defer.

Therefore, if the publisher knows that many of the teachers who are going to be using the Teacher's Guide have attended teacher training courses run by their agents or even by the authors of the textbook, or who will be trained in a 'cascade' by senior teachers who have attended the course, there seems little need to produce a Teacher's Guide which provides little more than photocopiable tests, pairwork sheets and Unit Notes. This meets the perceived need for a Teacher's Guide. There is little in the literature to state how teachers perceive their need although it is assumed that teachers need guidance in the use of textbooks (Coleman, 1985 p. 84).However, what form this guidance takes is currently limited to staged and repetitive Unit Notes.

These arguments go some way to describing to what extent the pattern of power relations which are expressed at the micro level of the Teacher's Guides is a reflection of the wider frame of production and means of distribution within the wider framework of ELT.

6.9 The power of the Teacher's Guide

The Unit Notes, which make up the bulk of the Teacher's Guides, serve the instrumental purpose of instructing the teacher in the optimum ways of teaching the materials in the Student's Book. However, although the stages of the lessons are presented with clear

linearity, there is no guarantee that the teacher will respond, pedagogically, to the discourse in the way which the producer of the text so strongly intended. Responses to textual exhortations are almost as varied as the number of readers who read the text. Some readers may read some or all the text from a position of estrangement or alienation, as in the example of the Middle East teacher reading the 'Fun and Games' section described above. Other teachers may read that section of the text from a position of assimilationism but feel estranged from others.

Other factors may also come into account, particularly in the context of teachers who teach a large number of classes: she may read one set of instructions with the intention of applying them to Class A, but may read them again with a different set of intentions when about to teach Class B for whom these stages and approaches would not be appropriate. In other words, however submissively the imbalance of power constructs the position of the reader, her own MR is the ultimate mediator of her response and subsequent pedagogic practice. It may be true that teachers' lack of experience of, and insight into, interpreting the layers of meaning and presupposition contained in the Teacher' Guide are more likely to result in an assimilationist reading, or the producer of the course may prefer her to read the text 'with the grain'. However, the likelihood is that, given the wide range of positions in which the texts place the readers throughout the texts and the range of discursive practices used, the reader will not always respond in the way the text producer would prefer. The success of the discourse in achieving its objectives can be judged only on an individual level.

6.10 A critique of the research method

The final section of the study involves an appraisal of the method of research and its success in providing answers to the original questions 'What do the three Teachers Guides say and how do they say it?'. The following section evaluates how effective Fairclough's three box framework for Critical Discourse analysis was for the purposes of this study and the issues it raises about the wider place of Critical Discourse Analysis as a research method.

An increased recognition that language is not transparent and that other interests may be served by the use of particular discursive practices offers the justification for placing the means of analysis within the framework of Critical theory. In order to go some way to establishing what ELT Teacher's Guides say and how they say it, it was necessary to use a means of analysis which had embedded in it a sense of critical questioning. Further, in order to provide both the necessary depth and breadth of analysis , a model of analysis had to be constructed which could penetrate the discursive practices of the texts in as many ways as possible. As the starting point of such an analysis depended on the acceptance that language is a social practice bounded by social contexts and conditions, a method of analysis had to be able to reveal relationships and connections between the language of the text and the social and institutional contexts in which it was used. However, in addition to being able to draw out social positionings, the method had to be founded in a well respected framework of language, or lexico-grammatical, analysis.

Halliday's programmatic chart which displays the four distinct but overlapping entities or constructs of language provided the foundation for Fairclough's Critical Discourse framework which offered tools which were sharp enough to be able to identify grammatical components and their functional purposes and, at the same time, to be able to excavate what lay below the surface of the language structures and distinguish their purposes and aims. Halliday's second element of language analysis states that language also embodies systems of thought and therefore, within the context of pedagogic practice, the research method had to offer appropriately constructed, relevant and penetrating questions which would display the epistemological framework which lay behind, and was expressed in, the language of the texts. Third, Halliday sees language as behaviour, or forms of behaviour, enacted within social contexts. Therefore, the analysis had to be able to clarify the social context of use of the texts and language of the Teacher's Guides and provide ways in which evaluations could be made of how these social practices were directed by the language of the texts. Finally, Halliday sees language as a means of representing and constructing reality. Therefore, an evaluation of what the Teacher's Guides say and how they say it had to take into account how the language of the texts constructed the reality of the teacher's position.

Fairclough's model drew heavily on Hallidayian systemic linguistics but it was flexible enough to be able to adapt it to the subject of the research. It was important to bear in mind that his framework was not constructed with the intention of being universally applied to all texts but the aim in this study was to remain as faithful as possible to the

structures provided in his framework because they drew on respected Hallidayian systems.

The analysis of texts requires research tools which are transparent and logical even though the subject matter of the analysis may be opaque and occasionally illogical. Therefore, it is important to stand back from the necessarily emic perspective of the critical discourse analyst and appraise as objectively as possible the limitations which are necessarily inherent in the procedure, positioned as it is, within the qualitative research paradigm. The first problem is that of making a strong enough case for justifying the selection of texts used as data for the analysis. This seemingly random choice of subject matter is a criticism which is levelled at many other forms of qualitative research, which generally distinguishes itself from quantitative research procedures by taking as a starting point the concern for capturing perspectives from which meaning can be taken, rather than starting from a proposition which can be tested.

It terms of the selection of the three Teacher's Guides for this study, the choices may seem arbitrary given the number of texts available. It would have been possible to use a table of random numbers to select the Teacher's Guides for study but, given the dearth of literature on Teacher's Guides, it seemed more useful to apply analysis to those texts which were known to be the most influential (in terms of numbers sold).Therefore, as with much qualitative research, the selection of the object of study was bounded by the limitations of my own criteria. In other words, another analyst would be equally free to make a selection of texts using different criteria. Nevertheless, it is of importance to

note here that, although generally, qualitative researchers are concerned to make interpretations of the social event and also of the social actors, this study aimed to stand, as far away as was possible, from the social actors – the teachers, and their interpretations of the texts. Therefore, because the focus remained on the texts, this meant that once the carefully staged and questioned-guided analysis had begun, the research method was able to create a distance between the text and the researcher, although, at the interpretation and explanation stages, it was not always easy to remain fixed on the presuppositions made by the text rather than with the audience, the readers.

Because all texts are constructed on the basis of some kind of symbiosis between writer and reader, it is the expectations and presuppositions of both participants which shape the language and the content, and therefore the meaning, of the text. A focussed interpretation could only result by consciously removing as many assumptions as possible about how a reader would use her MR to make sense of the meaning/s of the text. If the analyst is familiar with the kind of reader for whom the text is intended , it is takes conscious and self-conscious effort not to cloud the interpretation with assumptions about stereotypical or ideal responses from the reader.

As is the case with most means of research, discourse analysis is more suited to certain kinds of research enquiry than others. For example, the requirement to focus on the local context and local coherence of a text means that it is difficult to extrapolate from the data obtained from this small sampling to make generalisations about wider ranging social patterns and processes. Therefore, discourse analysis, including critical discourse

analysis may lend itself more honestly to the study of small scale samples, such as a limited number of Teacher's guides texts because CDA is concerned with looking for patterns of language use. These patterns emerge through the use of the questions offered by the model and once the patterns have emerged then begins the process of interpretation and explanation. This kind of detective work can only be done on a small scale. Certainly, a computer programme could be devised to reveal whether all ELT Secondary teachers Guides use bullet points in the Unit Notes or use agentless passives for a specific percentage of the text. This would not, however, serve to reveal other patterns which may exist in other Guides, nor, more importantly, would it allow for the process of interpretation and explanation.

As always, however, the different purposes of the research create a need for different techniques and this is as true within the field of Discourse analysis as it as between the two major approaches of quantitative and qualitative research. In many cases, each can draw on the support of the other. This is particularly useful when the sharply focussed clarity which is obtained by looking at a small sample needs to be tested. The necessary small scale sampling of case studies, for example, or action research, as well as Discourse Analysis, raises questions which would not have been framed by other, larger scale research strategies.

6.11 Possible future areas of research

From this small scale study it would be useful to see further research into other Teacher's Guides, both ELT and non-ELT, to see to what extent, if at all, the subject

matter or different contexts of use produce different evidence. A similar study could be based on texts which have been chosen in accordance with other selection criteria – perhaps Teacher's Guides which accompany Student's Books which have not been so commercially successful to see if there is a correlation between the success of the Students book and the content, language and structure of the Teacher's Guide. Teacher's Guides could be selected using a random number selection procedure. It would also be interesting to analyse the discursive practices of non-native speaker authors who are writing for their own educational contexts and to establish to what extent they are influenced by the discursive practices of BANA produced Teacher's guides and how they diverge from it. Further, case studies of individual teachers' use of Teacher's Guides are long overdue in the field of ELT as are large scale surveys of teacher's use and perceptions of them in and outside ELT. More accurate research needs to be carried out into publishers perceptions and marketing of Teachers Guides including, possibly an analysis of their marketing plans which describe strategies for marketing Teacher's Guides, their investment and marketing attitudes to the product. Finally, research studies could be set up which could explore alternative means of supporting teachers in the classroom – for example on audio, video cassette or CD Rom or with interactive web pages.

6.12 Conclusions

Given the circumstances of production and consumption, it may be true that for Teacher's Guides, the possibilities for change are, to a large extent, constrained by the current reality of the context. This reality may, depending on the nature of the text, be

defined by issues of politics - for example, government control – or by financial or commercial constraints - for example, publishers' expected profits and position in the market. These issues of production and consumption, which are key part of Fairclough's model, are particularly relevant to the content, design and discourse style of the Teacher's Guide. The conclusion may be that a study of the discursive practices of the Teacher's Guides reveals more about the relationships of power between the strong and the weak, the rich and the poor, the supplier and the customer, than it does about the precepts, philosophy and principles of English language teaching.

If models of Critical Discourse Analysis succeed in revealing and critiquing these imbalances of power while seeking to participate in the construction of an alternative ELT discourse, it may be possible for teachers to find spaces to create their own voices as they read Teacher's Guides. Such voices will struggle to explore the culture, knowledge, skills and histories of the teachers to whom the texts are addressed by participating in a critique of the given discourse. The world of ELT is peopled with linguists who have developed an increasingly sophisticated range of tools to analyse, describe,understand and market the product known as the English language and the procedure known as English Language Teaching. It is perhaps time to apply those tools to a critical analysis of the discourse which has been used to commodify them.

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Appendix 1:

List of markets for secondary school textbook (CUP marketing data)

Albania	Estonia	Portugal
Argentina	France	Qatar
Armenia	FYR Macedonia	Republika Serbska
Australia	Germany	Romania
Azerbaijan	Greece	Russia
Bahrain	Hong Kong	Serbia
Belarus	Hungary	Singapore
Belgium	Iceland	Slovak republic
Bosnia Herzegovina	Indonesia	Slovenia
Brazil	Ireland	Spain
Bulgaria	Italy	Switzerland
Cameroon	Japan	Taiwan
Canada	Jordan	Thailand
Chile	Latvia	The Netherlands
China	Lebanon	Turkey
Colombia	Libya	Ukraine
Croatia	Lithuania	United Arab Emirates
Cuba	Mexico	USA
Czech republic	Morocco	Uzbekistan
Denmark	Pakistan	Venezuela
Ecuador	Peru	Yugoslavia
Egypt	Poland	

Appendix 2: Grammar as presented in the Introductions

Hotline	*World Class*	*Open Doors*
1 The focus in Hotline is on enabling learners to use language, but an important element in this is helping learners to understand and feel comfortable with the basic structures of English.	1 In the Language Focus lessons, there are activities which preview the target language , and provide an realistic context for it.	1 Part b aims to consolidate students' grammatical knowledge with explanations and a thorough practice of the new structures introduced in the unit.
2 They will then feel more comfortable in language use	2 These activities are usually extensive reading and listening tasks, where students see or hear but do not need to understand the target structure.	2 Students are often asked to work out a simple grammar rule for themselves.
3 Each section of the unit has a Language work element and in the later units there is a separate Language work section.	3 These activities are followed by Language Focus boxes which deal either with grammar items or language functions presenting difficulties of form or usage.	3 The Study Skills section shows students how to develop language learning techniques that they can use in class and at home in order to become more independent in their learning.
4 In Language work students study the new language structures in detail.	4 As far as possible, students are asked to work out the rules themselves based on examples taken from the previous presentation text	
5 The most important aspect of this section is the cognitive approach to grammar.	5 Find the rules activities take different forms; the most common, which concentrates on form, is he completion of substitution tables.	
6 This works in two ways.	6 Students have to complete tables which include the	

	target structure, using example of language from the previous text.	
7 First the students find and complete examples of the structure in the Victoria Road story or some other section of the unit.	7 Another find the rule activity is matching.	
8 Secondly, in the Build Up activities students work out the grammar rule for themselves.	8 This establishes meaning (for example, matching questions and answers or two halves of a sentence)	
9 They complete substitution tables and grammar rules.	9 Guided concept questions ask students to formulate rules of form and usage themselves.	
10 Thirdly, the students are encouraged to compare the English structure to that in their own language	10 Students are encouraged to be aware of some basic grammatical terminology, so that they can relate English grammar to their own language and think about grammatical problems.	
11 Finally, when the students have thoroughly analysed the structure, they do controlled practice activities.		

Appendix 3: Grammar charts beginning of the book: present simple verb 'to be'

Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
	Aim: to present the verb to be in the present tense, affirmative and negative forms.	
• 1 As part of the cognitive approach to grammar , Hotline has a number of tasks where students must complete a substitution table.	• 1 Ask students to look at the example sentences and elicit which are singular and plural, and which are affirmative and negative.	• 1 Explain (in L1) that the full form is used in formal writing and the short form is usually heard in spoken English.
• 2 This is the first example.	• 2 Either ask Students to complete the boxes individually and then check answers on the board, or copy the boxes onto the board and elicit the missing words.	• 2 The short form is also seen in informal writing (eg. In a letter to a friend).
• 3 When it is complete, make sure students understand how the tables work.	• 3 Students then copy the boxes in their notebooks.	• 3 Practice the pronunciation of the short forms.
• 4 Divide the class into pairs.	• 4 Ask students to translate the example sentences into their own language.	• 4 Read out a full form and ask individual students to say the short form.
• 5 Students complete the table.	• 5 With a monolingual class, you can check all students agree.	• 5 Do the first example on the board with the whole class.
• 6 They use the dialogue to help them.		• 6 If necessary, teach the word 'student and teenager.
• 7 Copy the table onto the board.		• 7 Students can work out the answers to the other sentences in pairs before writing them down in their notebooks

• 8 Choose students to come out and complete the table. • 9 Students quote examples from the dialogue to justify the rule in the table. • 10 Students make ten sentences using the table.		• 8 Check the answers with the whole class. • 9 Ask one student to read out an answer, and another to write it on the board.

Grammar: present continuous (Middle of the book)

Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
• 1 You can start immediately with the Victoria Road story on page 64 or you can pre-teach the present continuous first.	• 1 Aim: to present the present continuous.	• 1 Ask students to copy and complete the table in their notebooks.
• 2 If you wish to pre-teach the language, use the following procedure.	• 2 Look at the example sentences with students.	• 2 Check that students understand the meaning of all the verbs in the table.
• 3 Spend no more than 10 minutes on the pre-teaching.	• 3 Tell students to listen to the examples and complete the sentences. with 'is' or 'are'.	• 3 Students check their answers with their partners.
• 4 Introduce the positive form of the present continuous.	• 4 Then students copy and complete the tables.	• 4 Check the answers with the whole class by asking students to complete the table on the board.
• 5 Open the door.	• 5 Go through the answers with the whole class.	• 5 Explain that the present continuous tense is made with the verb' to be' and the –ing form of the main verb.
• 6 Say *I'm opening the door.*	• 6 Ask students for the translation in their own language.	• 6 Look at the table with the whole class and explain the meaning of *vowel* and *consonant*..
• 7 Repeat.	• 7 Tell them to write them next to examples in the tables.	• 7 Students work in pairs or groups to work out the rules (in L1).
	• 8 Tell students to read the postcard.	• 8 Check the rules with the whole class.
• 8 Choose a student.	• 9 Ask there where Sam is (England) and where	• 9 Look at the example with the whole class.

• 9 Ask *What am I doing?* • 10 Elicit the answer *You're opening the door.* • 11 repeat with another student. • 12 Choose a student. • 13 Say *Read your book.* • 14 Ask another student *What is he/she doing?* • 15 Elicit the answer: *He's/she's reading a book.* • 16 Repeat procedure for other activities. • 17 Use *open/close the door/window/book, write and sing.* • 18 Introduce the question form of the present continuous. • 19 Say *I'm wearing...*	Anne is (Cocullo). • 10 Tells students to put the verbs in brackets in the present continuous. • 11 Go through the answers with the whole class. • 12 Tell students to look at the big picture of the festival. • 13 Look at the example question and answer. • 14 Ask another question: *'What is this man doing?.* • 15 Elicit an answer. • 16 Divide the class into pairs. • 17 Tell students to ask and answer questions about the picture. • 18 Go round the class and monitor the use of the present continuous. • 19 Tell students to close their books • 20 Ask them: *Can you remember what the people are doing?'*	• 10 Demonstrate with a good student. • 11 Ask students to work out the rest of the phone conversation in pairs, finding the answers in the picture. • 12 They can produce orally before writing their answers in their notebooks. • 13 Check the answers with the whole class.

• 20 Choose a student. • 21 Ask : *What am I wearing?* • 22 Elicit the answer *You're wearing.* . • 23 Choose other students. • 24 Ask: *What are you wearing? What is he/she wearing?* • 25 Introduce names of clothes, as necessary. • 26 Books open. • 27 Students look at the picture and text on page 63. • 28 Say: *We call this the present continuous tense.* • 29 *We use it to describe what is happening now* . • 30 Start the Victoria Road story on page 64.	• 21 Write one or two sentences on the board, for example: *A woman is buying cheese. A boy is holding a snake.* • 22 Divide the class into pairs. • 23 Give the class three minutes and tell them to write as many sentences as they can remember about the picture. • 24 When they have finished, write the sentences up on the board. • 25 Divide the class into groups. • 26 Tell the students to guess what you are doing. • 27 Then mime an activity, for example, playing tennis/chess. • 28 Students call out: *Are you playing... ?* • 29 Only accept complete questions. • 30 Tell the students to do the same in groups. • 31 Go around the class and monitor the use of the present continuous.	

Grammar: past simple verb 'to be': (end of the book)

Hotline	World Class	Open Doors
• 1 Divide the class into pairs.	• 1 Aim: to present the past simple of to be.	• 1 Write *was, wasn't, were, weren't* on the board.
• 2 Students complete the sentences.	• 2 Point out that though the above answer can be deduced from the examples in the boxes, there is an exception – the second person singular takes were.	• 2 Ask students to read the presentation story again in pairs and find examples of these.
• 3 While they are doing this, copy the sentences onto the board.	• 3 Ask students to read the text and complete the gaps with was and were	• 3 Play the first part of the cassette.
• 4 Choose students to come out and complete the sentences.		• 4 Students listen and read the first dialogue.
• 5 Students complete the table.		• 5 Play the cassette again.
• 6 They use the information in the Victoria Road story to help them.		• 6 Students listen and repeat.
• 7 While they are doing this copy the table onto the board.		• 7 Play the second part of the cassette.
• 8 Students quote examples from the story to justify the rule in the table.		• 8 Students listen and read the second dialogue and then listen and repeat.
• 9 Students make ten sentences using the table.		• 9 Ask students to practice the dialogue in

• 10 Students complete the dialogue, in the same pairs as before. • 11 Choose pairs to read out parts of the dialogue. • 12 Other students compare their answers. • 13 In pairs, students read the dialogue. • 14 They reverse roles and repeat. • 15 Students complete the table. • 16 Copy the table onto the board. • 17 Choose students to complete the table on the board. • 18 Ask: *How do we make questions with the past tense of the verb 'to be'?*		pairs. • 10 Ask question about the dialogues: *Where was Ann on Thursday? (At school) Was she at home on Sunday evening? (No). etc.* • 11 Ask students to copy the diary page into their exercise books and fill it in with true answers if they can. • 12 The pictures will give them some ideas. • 13 Students ask and answer questions about each other's diaries, like Nick and Ana in exercise 2. • 14 Demonstrate first with a good student. • 15 Then students work in pairs. • 16 Students could write sentences about their partner's diaries: *Niki was at school on Friday morning. On Friday afternoon she ... etc*

• 19 Students complete the rule. • 20 Choose one student to read out the rule. • 21 Demonstrate the rule with the table on the board.		

Appendix 4 Vocabulary as presented in the Introductions

Open Doors	**World Class**
Vocabulary learning	Vocabulary
1 Teenage learners need to devote a considerable amount of attention to building their vocabulary from the outset	1 In this level of ***World Class*** vocabulary is more consciously presented than at higher levels.
2 In each unit of ***Open Doors*** there is a page that focuses specifically on vocabulary building, but new vocabulary is also introduced in other sections of the unit	2 To be able to do activities as beginners, students often need language presented or reviewed beforehand.
3 The new vocabulary that is introduced in parts a,b,c and d of each unit is listed in the vocabulary notes, divided into active and passive vocabulary .	3 At the same time, it is important to make sure that learners are aware of key lexical items such as colours or numbers.
4 The list of active vocabulary contains the most important words which students need to focus on and learn to use: the list of passive vocabulary contains words which students need to be able to recognise and understand but are not expected to use actively at this stage. ***[Open Doors*** Page 5]	4 Many of these activities are at the beginning of lessons and they involve matching vocabulary with pictures with the aid of the mini-dictionary.
Introducing new vocabulary sets	
5 Part c of every unit focuses on a new vocabulary set.	5 In other lessons, pictures are labelled with key vocabulary to help learners.
6 The new words are recorded on cassette and students may need to listen and repeat several times in order to memorize the words and learn the correct pronunciation.	6 As well as this presentation of key lexis, learners are introduced to the basic idea throughout ***World Class*** that they are the ones who have to decide which words are important, depending on their own interests and lifestyles.
7 After listening and repeating, you may like to practice further with individual students: T What's number 4? S1 Book T Number 11?	7 Key to this approach are vocabulary books which students establish at the start of the course and where they can write down new vocabulary themselves.

S2 Window ***Vocabulary books*** 8 It is important for students to organise their vocabulary learning by keeping a record of all the new words they want to remember. 9 In ***Open Doors*** we recommend that students use a special notebook for recording new vocabulary. 10 In this way, records of the new vocabulary will be kept together, and not become confused with all the exercises and other notes that they make in their ordinary notebooks. 11In the Study Skills section in ***Open Doors*** there are suggestions as to how students might organise their vocabulary books, and tips on how to memorise new words and test themselves.	8 As the book progresses, students are encouraged to use the mini- dictionary to look up important new words in reading activities. 9 For more open-ended activities students should use their own bilingual dictionaries. 10 Useful vocabulary is suggested where relevant in the Teacher's Book. 11 However, it is important for students to be in the habit of selecting and storing important words themselves. 12 You can encourage this in various ways. 13 Firstly, when students finish a task before others, you can ask them whether they have stored all the important new lexis. 14 Also you can assign short periods during or at the end of classes to enable students to do this. 15 The Revision lesson then gives student an opportunity to re-cap on new lexis and to check that they have not left out any important new words. 16 The useful vocabulary section in the Activity Book gives suggestions as to which words need to be written down, but it should be seen as a guide rather than a vocabulary list

	17 Finally, it is important to monitor Vocabulary books , taking them in from time to time and giving students a mark. 18 Your assessment should take into account the organisation of lexis, how easy it is to find your way around the book, what information is given, whether examples provide a context for words and how much is included. 19 The information is particularly useful when coming to decisions about students' attitudes to learning and when assessing their ability to organise their own work.

Appendix 5 Vocabulary Beginning of the book: Families

Hotline	*World Class*	*Open Doors*
	Aim: to present new vocabulary (family relationships).	
• 1 In this activity students use the information in the text to work out the meaning of the words.	• 1 Ask students to match the pairs of names with the family relationships.	• 1 Look at Don's family photo on page 24 of the Student's Book.
• 2 Don't give the meanings of the words.	• 2 They can use the mini dictionary	• 2 Ask students (in L1) to guess how the different people in the picture are related
		Exercise 1
• 3 Students must work them out.		• 3 Explain the meaning of any words that students do not know.
• 4 Divide the class into pairs.		• 4 Students write the words in their vocabulary books
• 5 Students read the list of words.		• 5 Play the cassette.
• 6 Read them aloud.		• 6 Students listen and repeat exercise 2
• 7 Explain the activity.		• 7 Ask students to copy the family tree in their notebooks
• 8 Students use the clues and family tree to work out the meanings of the words.		• 8 Play the cassette
• 9 Allow time for all pairs to work out all of the words before		• 9 Students listen and

eliciting answers. • 10 Ask: *How do you know?* • 11 Students justify their ideas from the text and the tree.		complete the family tree (tapescript follows) • 10 Students compare their answers with their partners • 11 Play the cassette again, checking students' answers by drawing and competing the family tree on the board exercise 3 • 12 Look at the Learn this! Section with the whole class • 13 Demonstrate the dialogue with a good student while the rest of the class listens. • 14 In pairs, students talk about Don's family.

Vocabulary from the middle of the book: Places

Hotline	*World Class*	*Open Doors*
	Aim: to present vocabulary related to the theme of the lesson	
• 1 In this activity students work out the meanings of the new words from the context.	• 1 Ask students to look at the picture and solve the anagrams to find the words.	• 1 Ask students to tell you words they already know for parts of a house.
• 2 Explain and discuss the context fully, but don't give the meanings of the words in the list.	• 2 Students can use the mini dictionary	• 2 Look at the picture of Sir Edward's house.
• 3 Divide the class into pairs.		• 3 Ask students to name in (L1) the different parts of the house.
• 4 Students look at the house.		• 4 Play the cassette.
• 5 Explain the situation.		• 5 Students listen and repeat the words.
• 6 Students read the words in the list.		• 6 Look at the picture again and demonstrate the dialogue with a good student.
• 7 Choose one student to read out the words.		• 7 In pairs, students practice asking and answering questions.
• 8 Play the tape once.		• 8 Check the questions and answers with the whole class.
• 9 Students listen.		• 9 Students could write sentences about the pictures in their notebooks.
• 10 Students label as		• 10 Explain to students

many parts of the house as they can. • 11 Play the tape again. • 12 Students listen again. • 13 Students complete the diagram. • 14 Point to the parts of the house. • 15 Students give the names. • 16 Students correct their diagrams if necessary. • 17 Play the tape again. • 18 Students follow on their labelled diagrams. • 19 They listen for another word for 'toilet'		that they are going to listen to Sir Edward and the policeman chasing the thief. • 11 Tell the students that the answers are in the form of sounds. • 12 Pause the cassette after each sound to give students time to answer. • 13 The exact place to pause is marked on the tapescript. • 14 Explain that number one has been done.

Appendix 6 Project work : Introductions

Hotline	*World Class*	*Open Doors*
1 What benefits does project work bring to the language class?	1 In the first level of World Class there are projects in every module (in the fluency lessons.	1 Project work is an ideal opportunity for students to use English in a creative and personal way, which will give them a real sense of achievement.
2 As this teacher indicates, project work captures better than any other activity the two principal elements of the communicative approach.	2 Projects can be highly worthwhile and motivating.	2 The projects in ***Open Doors*** ask students to do things with English: they might conduct a survey in order to write an article, or collect information in order to make a poster.
3 Positive motivation is the key to successful language learning and project work is particularly useful as a means of generating this positive motivation.	3 Students can feel that they are really creating something in English: they gain real satisfaction from inventing things or finding things out and then displaying their own work.	3 In this way they are encouraged to draw on their knowledge of the world to produce an extended piece of English work that is both meaningful and relevant.
4 It enables all students to produce a worthwhile product.	4 At this level, students are given plenty of opportunities to use their imagination and to do some drawing as well as writing.	4 In ***Open Doors*** we suggest that students work on their projects in groups.
5 This feature of project work makes it particularly suited to the mixed ability class, because students can work at their own pace and level.	5 Another advantage of project work is that it encourages students to work together in pairs or groups and for stronger students to help weaker ones.	5 Working in groups increases motivation by allowing students to exchange ideas and help each other.
6 The brighter students can work at their own pace and level .	6 This is particularly important in mixed ability situations.	6 It is inevitable that students will talk in their own language and make a certain amount of noise, but if they are well motivated and concentrate on

		producing a high quality product in English, you should not worry about this.
7 The brighter students can show what they know, unconstrained by the syllabus, while at the same time the slower learners can achieve something that they can take pride in, perhaps compensating for their lower language level by using more visuals.	7 All of the projects at this level are carefully staged and students are introduced to the writing process in this way.	7 (We also recognise that many teachers may prefer their students to work on projects individually, and all six projects in Open Doors are suitable for individual work).
8 (Firstly) It encourages the use of a wide range of communicative skills, enables learners to exploit other spheres of knowledge, and provides opportunities for them to write about the things that are important in their lives.	8 First they are encouraged ideas or write notes about the topic.	8 Project work is time – consuming, but if you are short of time you can ask students to do some of the preparation work at home and set strict time limits for finishing projects in class.
9 Secondly, project work helps to make the language more relevant to learners' actual needs.	9 Then they use their notes to write descriptions, draw posters or write stories.	9 Finally, it is important to display the finished projects on the classroom wall so that students can take pride in their work and refer to it in later lessons.
10 Thirdly, project work establishes a sounder relationship between language and culture.	10 Display is particularly important and for this reason it can be a good idea to give students cardboard to do their projects on.	10 Project work is particularly suitable for students of different abilities, as it allows each student to work at their own pace and level.
11 Teachers are often afraid that the project classroom will be noisier than the traditional classroom.	11 Then the posters can be displayed around the classroom.	11 Project work can either be done individually or in groups.
12 But project work does not have to be noisier than any other activity.	12 Another way of presenting projects is for students to have small project folders which can	12 If students work individually, stronger students can be encouraged to use the language they

	then be circulated around the class.	know to produce more lengthy, elaborate projects, while weaker students can aim for something less ambitious, perhaps compensating for their lower language level by using more photographs and drawings.
13 It takes longer to prepare, make and present a project than it does to do more traditional activities.	13 In both situations it is important to give other students an opportunity to look at the work.	13 If students work in groups, you could either group students of similar ability levels together, or divide them into groups of mixed levels.
14 Secondly, when choosing to do project work, you need to recognise that you are making a philosophical choice in favour of the quality of the learning experience over the quantity.	14 To make this more motivating, students themselves can work out simple task sheets for the others to complete.	14 In mixed ability groups, you may find that stronger students help the weaker ones, or that students of different abilities within the group take on different roles: weaker students might take responsibility for the overall design of the poster or article , while the others concentrate on the writing.
15 Project work provides rich learning experiences – rich in colour, movement, interaction, and most of all, involvement.	15 Another alternative is for students to assess the work of other students on the basis of presentation or interest.	
16 It is likely that students will speak in their mother tongue while working on their projects.	16 In addition to the activities in the Student's Book, further ideas for project work related to the themes of the modules are suggested in the Teacher's Book.	

17 Some teachers are concerned that, without the teacher's firm control, the weaker students will be lost and will not be able to cope. 18 It would be wrong to pretend that project work does not have its drawbacks. 19 The work is so motivating for students that it creates its own momentum. 20 Project work is one of the most exciting developments in language teaching. 21 It combines in practical form both the fundamental principles of a communicative approach and the values of good education. 22 It has the added virtue of being a long-established and well –tried method of teaching in other subject areas.		